

A NEW HISTORY OF ENGLAND
AND GREAT BRITAIN

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OF
ENGLAND
AND
GREAT BRITAIN

WITH MAPS AND TABLES

BY

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PREFACE

THIS book is a new edition of my "History of the British Empire," but so many changes have been made in it, and so many additions to it, that it is practically a new book. It consists of a continuous narrative of the chief events of each reign in the history of England and Great Britain, along with a number of notes and illustrative remarks which throw side-lights on the most important events and characters in the history of the country. The following are believed to be the specifically new features in this book —

(i) At the beginning of each reign a clear statement is made as to who each succeeding sovereign was, his relation to the preceding sovereign, his children, and his other relatives.

(ii) Clear genealogies are given of each House.

(iii) The chief clauses in Treaties and Acts of Parliament are briefly and clearly set out.

(iv) A paragraph is given to the Great Men of each reign.

(v) The Social Facts connected with each period are briefly given.

(vi) The Literature of, and the state of the Language at, the period are shortly described.

(vii) A Short Chronology of each reign is given at the end of it, so that the student may get it up with ease, and make himself quite sure of the main events.

(viii) A brief view is presented of Important Contemporary Events in other countries.

(ix) Short Lives of Eminent Persons have been appended to the book.

(x) Short definitions, with examples, have been given of the Terms employed in English History. With this a few derivations have been given.

(xi) The Chronological System of Mr David Nasmith, Q C, has been employed for each century.

This system is so ingenious, and yet so simple, that it deserves a

longer description. It is based on the ordered arrangement in space of each decade. The decade appears thus —

1180		
1181 Richard takes Acre Corporation of London first legally recognised.	1182 Richard captured by the Duke of Austria and sold to the Emperor Henry VI	1183
1184 Richard ransomed for 150,000 marks He returns to England for two months	1185	1186
1187 Richard builds "Sawcy Castle" (Chateau d'Alindat) on the Rhine —near Losen	1188 Hugh Bishop of Lincoln re- fuses to find money for a foreign war	1189 Death of Richard JOHN Archbishop Hubert Chancellor

Thus (a) The 0s always appear in the upper bar, (b) the 1's on the upper left hand corner, (c) the 9's in the lowest right-hand corner, (d) the 5's in the middle, and so on. After a little practice with this table, the difficulty is not to remember, but to forget. The only effort of memory required is to remember in what space you have seen a particular statement and this is just as easy as to remember where a street or square is.

It is hoped that all these arrangements will make it easier for the student to get up and to remember the details of History, as well as the main events, which of themselves keep a firm hold of the mind. The paragraphs in small type will be of use to those who are preparing for examinations, as they contain answers to most of the questions set in History Papers.

J M D MEIKLEJOHN

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A NEW HISTORY OF ENGLAND AND GREAT BRITAIN

INTRODUCTORY

1 **Position.**—The British Empire, which now stretches over the whole globe on which we live, has its chief seat in the two islands of Great Britain and Ireland. These two islands lie off the coast of Europe, between the 49th and the 61st degrees of north latitude, with the long unbroken expanse of the stormy Atlantic to the west of them. It is to this position on the Atlantic that they owe their mild and healthy climate. While Labrador, which lies in exactly the same latitude, has a winter of nine months,—a winter fit only for seals and white bears, with a thermometer almost always below zero,—these islands enjoy a climate which enables corn and fruit to ripen, and in which—as Charles II. used to say—a man may be out of doors a larger number of hours than in any other country in Europe. The country is one of the most beautiful in the world. The larger half of England is like one wide rich garden,—

“Bright breadth of plain, blue veined by many a stream,
Umbrageous hills, sweet glades, and forests fair”

To this position, also, it is that these islands owe their enormous wealth and their ever growing trade. In the times of the Roman Empire, the trade of the world lay in and around the Mediterranean, but in the present century, Britain¹ sends her ships to every climate and to every land; and the Mediterranean of to-day is the Atlantic Ocean. So thickly do ships and steam-vessels come and go upon this ocean, that the great American physical geographer, Maury, recommended that lines should be drawn for vessels going and re

¹ The word *Britain* is said to come from the Celtic word *Brit* “painted,” because the warriors stained their chests with blue woad before going into battle.

turning, and that thus there should be "Ocean Lanes" for the regular journeys of ships. But, though Britain carries on a vaster trade with the New World than with any other country, not the less is her face turned to the continent of Europe, with every large town on which she has connection either by ship, or by rail, or by telegraph, and all for the purposes of a commerce which grows with the rising of every sun. The sun never sets and never rises on the British dominions, the roll of the British drum calls the British soldier to duty in the mornings of every longitude, and makes a belt of sound around the planet, and it would be perfectly practicable to put round the earth a girdle of telegraphic wire, the ends of which should rest only upon land that belongs to the QUEEN OF THE BRITISH EMPIRE.

(i) The first step to the wealth and power of Great Britain was the discovery of coal and iron about 150 years ago—a discovery which made this island the workshop of the world.

(ii) The greater acquisitions of land began also about 150 years ago with the conquest of North America and of India from the French, when the population of England was only about 5,000,000.

2 The Three Britains.—The larger of the two islands in which we live is called Great Britain (*Britannia Magna*). It received this name to distinguish it from another home of the British race which is now called Brittany (*Britannia Minor*, or, in French, *Bretagne*). In Brittany there still live more than a million persons of that family of the great Celtic race which is called British, and these persons speak a dialect¹ of that language which—in different forms and under different names—is found in Ireland, in Wales, in the Isle of Man, and in the Highlands of Scotland.² These two Britains have many points in common. Both had the same Druidical religion, both have the same traditions about King Arthur, and his coming again to rule their race, both have their *Cornwall* (in Brittany it is *Cornouailles*), where the same cruel and dastardly trade of wrecking was pursued, and both have their castle of St Michael's Mount, on each of which Christianity has had its seat since the earliest ages. But these two Britains are now almost overshadowed by the world-wide fame of the Greater Britain, which, in every climate and on every

¹ A dialect is a *species*; a language is a *genus*; or we may say: A language is a big dialect, and a dialect is a little language.

² In Ireland it is called *Fris*; in Wales *Kymric*; in the Isle of Man *Manx*; in Scotland *Gaelic*. It existed also in Cornwall, which used to be called West Wales, but it died out about eighty years ago in the person of an old lady called Mary Penruffin.

continent, to the number of about one hundred million voices, speaks the tongue that is known in all parts of the world as English

(i) Before the coming of the Celts into Great Britain, this island was thinly inhabited by a race of stunted savages, whose tools and weapons were of flint, wood, or bone who dressed in skins, painted their bodies with red ochre and blue woad juice, and who lived by hunting. This was in the time when—as now in Labrador—glaciers filled the upper parts of the river valleys, and there roamed in the plains and moors wild oxen, elk, wild horses, cave lions, cave bears, hyenas and in the lowland swamps lived river horses, elephants, and rhinoceroses

(ii) The Celts are an Aryan Race who came from the Highlands of Central Asia—probably from the lofty table land called “High Pamir.” Celtic languages are still spoken by the Welsh, Irish, Scotch Gaels, and Bretons, and most of the names of European rivers, mountains, etc., are Celtic

(a) The *ar* in *Aryan* is said to be the same syllable as the *ar* in *arable*. Hence *Aryan* would mean *the ploughing race*

(b) *PAMIR* lies to the north west of the Karakorum Mountains and north-east of Hindoo Koosh

(iii) The next Aryan race that spread over Europe were the Teutons, and to this family belong the Norwegians, Swedes, Danes, Dutch, Flemings, Germans, Scotch, and English

(iv) The Asiatic races which settled in Europe that are not Aryans are the Basques (of the north of Spain), the Finns, the Lapps, and, at a later time, Magyars (in Hungary) and the Ottoman Turks. All these are Turanians—that is, they come from the Lowland of Turan, east of the Sea of Aral

3 The Three Englands—And, just as there are three Britains, so there are also three Englands. Old England, under the name of *Angeln*,¹ still exists in that part of Schleswig from which our forefathers came, and in that Angeln is still spoken a speech which, in its main features, is really the same as that which passes from mouth to mouth in these two islands. Our forefathers, when in the fifth century they left their native heaths and farms to obtain a settlement in Britain, brought with them the customs and the laws and the name of English and England. Much later on, in the troubled and confused times of Charles I., a number of stern and resolute Englishmen threw off the religious and political oppression under which they groaned, and left the shores of their mother country to found a New England,² which still grows in enterprise, in wealth, and in many virtues, on the western shores of the stormy Atlantic

¹ The change of pronunciation of the broad *a*, which passes into a narrow *a* and then into *e*, may be seen in the three ways of pronouncing *Pall Mall*. In Scotland it is sounded as in *ball*, in middle England as in *bat* in *balcony*, in London and the South, as in *fell*

² New England comprises six States—Maine, New Hampshire, Massachusetts, Connecticut, Vermont, and Rhode Island. It contains 65,000 square miles, that is, about one-eighth larger than England.

(9) "In the fifth century after the birth of Christ, the one country which bore the name of England was what we now call Schleswig, a district in the heart of the peninsula (of Jutland) which parts the Baltic from the Northern seas"—GREEN.

(10) There is in Schleswig a small district which keeps the name of *Angeln* to this day.

4. First Glimpse—The first faint note given by history of the existence of these islands is to be found in the story that the Scilly Isles¹ and Cornwall were frequently visited by sailors from Tyre and Sidon—two famous towns in a country called Phœnicia.² They came here to buy tin, a metal which was then deemed to be as valuable as gold, for mixed with copper, it formed bronze, one of the hardest of composite metals. But the first distinct mention of Great Britain in trustworthy history is to be found in a book called the "Commentaries of Cæsar." The writer of the book, the great Julius Cæsar, states, that, about 60 B.C., Divitiacus, a king of Northern Gaul,³ looked upon this island as part of his dominions. At that time there were in the island two kinds of Britons. One—the native—was a half-naked savage, with skins of wild beasts on his shoulders, his body painted blue to frighten his enemies, using stone hatchets and arrow-heads of flint, growing no corn, living on milk and flesh, and leading a miserable life in the heart of dense forests and dreary marshes. The other kind, who had come from the neighbouring countries of Gaul and Belgium,⁴ inhabited chiefly the country along the southern coast, and were hard-working farmers and traders. They had orderly governments, they lived in comfortable circular houses, they wore dresses of good black broadcloth reaching to their feet, and the richer class walked about with gold-headed staves in their hands. Both these kinds of Britons were of the same race—the Celtic, and both had the same religion.

5 The Religion of the Celts—Their religion was called *Druidism*. Their priests were the chief advisers of the British, and the educators of their youth, they were the poets and the prophets of their times. They venerated the wren, the hare, the oak,⁵ and especially the mistletoe, they performed their rites in the open air, in sacred groves, or on the tops of high hills, or in the midst of far-

¹ These islands were called the *Crudeniden*—*Cruden*—*Iden*.

² In the time of the *Phœnicians*.

³ Phœnicia was called *Gaul* and *Celtia* by the Romans.

⁴ Gaul=France.

⁵ The word *Druid* is thought to come from the Celtic word *drui* which in Greek appears as *drus*=oak.

stretching plains It is said that they worshipped the SUN—a worship which is found both in the Old and in the New World, which was practised in Peru and in Persia, in Syria¹ and in Greece, in Hindustan and on the western shores of the Pacific They believed in the immortality of the soul, and they offered human sacrifices Criminals and captives, and even young children, were burnt alive in vast wicker cages, while the British troops beat their drums, and the Druid priests chanted fierce hymns of thanksgiving and praise to their hideous and bloodthirsty gods

6 First Invasion. Julius Cæsar—This great Roman general and writer had, for some years before B C 55, been engaged in subduing the Gauls to the Roman yoke The Gauls had received aid from the Britons of the coast These Britons, it must not be forgotten, lived in towns, tilled the ground, had good roads, worked in metals, made pottery, and had merchant fleets which traded with France and Spain They could hardly, therefore, be called barbarians or uncivilised Cæsar (then proconsul²), led by stories about the pearls and the other wealth of Britain, resolved to annex it to the Roman Empire, but his first invasion was made simply for the purpose of reconnoitring At midnight on the 25th of August, 55 B C, he set sail from the neighbourhood of Boulogne with two legions in eighty high-prowed ships Next day the fleet put into Dover Bay, but the white cliffs bristled with armed men, and the order was given to make for another part of the coast The fleet accordingly stood off, and at length cast anchor opposite the open beach of Deal

First In
vasion of
Julius
Cæsar
B C 55

7 First Landing of the Romans—Here the Romans were again confronted by the Britons, with their scythed chariots drawn by swift and hardy ponies, their darts, and swords, and spears, and the Roman soldiers, finding it difficult to land, hesitated for some time in the presence of the swarms of a courageous enemy At last the standard-bearer of the Tenth Legion, a fearless soldier and a personal favourite of Cæsar, jumped into the sea with his silver eagle, shouting "Follow me, men of the Tenth, unless you wish to see

¹ The sun in Syria was known by the name *Baal* which in Greek appears as *Apollo*

² The *consuls* were the two chief magistrates of Rome a *proconsul* was an officer who acted in the place of the consul.

your eagle in the hands of the enemy !” This would have been a disgrace never to be forgotten , and the legionaries¹ jumped into the water, fought their way to the shore, and drove back the British troops

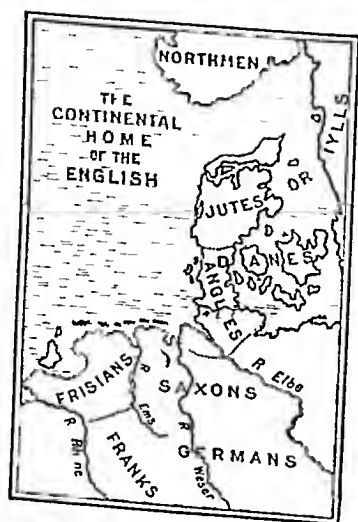
✓ 8 Second Invasion.—In about three weeks Cæsar left the island, but he returned in May of next year—B C 54—with a fleet of 800 ships, and an army of 25,000 foot and 2000 horse and several elephants. The British forces were commanded by Caswallon (or as the name stands in its Latin dress *Cassivellaunus*), but the hardy little chariot-horses were dismayed and demoralised by the sight and smell of the elephants, could not be got to charge, and fled in terrible disorder, cutting their own men to pieces with their revolving scythes. Cæsar imposed a tribute and received hostages for the due payment of it,² and, re embarking for Gaul never returned to the island

¹ Common soldiers of the legion a body which consisted of from 4500 to 6000 men

² Young persons given as pledges of good conduct and peace

BOOK I

ENGLAND AND GREAT BRITAIN
BEFORE THE CONQUEST



CHAPTER I

THE ROMANS SETTLED IN BRITAIN

↓ 1. **The First Campaign.**—For nearly a century Rome left Britain unmolested. But, in the year 43, the Emperor Claudius sent a large army of about 40,000 men to seize the island, 43 A D
to 410 under the command of Aulus Plautius and Vespasian. (This Vespasian was the great general who afterwards took Jerusalem, levelled it with the ground, and sowed it with salt, and who himself was afterwards chosen Emperor.) Claudius himself followed, remained in the island sixteen days, went back to Rome, proclaimed a victory for himself, and took the surname of Britannicus, as if he had subdued the whole island. After seven years of hard fighting, the leader of the Britons, Caradoc (in its Latin form, *Caractacus*¹) was defeated, and sent in chains to Rome. When led captive through the splendid streets of the capital of the world, he expressed his astonishment that the possessors of wealth so vast should envy him his thatched cottage in Britain, and the Emperor, struck by his intelligence, and his free and noble bearing, spared him his life.

↓ 2 **The slaughter of the Druids**—In the year 58, Suetonius Paulinus was appointed governor of Britain. He determined, as a root-and-branch stroke of policy, to put the A D 58 Druids to death, and to stamp out, if possible, their religion and their influence. He accordingly led an army, by forced marches, to the sacred isle of Mona, which is now called *Anglesea*. Here he was met by a British army, supported on each side by Druids in their white robes, and by priestesses with streaming hair and torches Devasta-
tion of
Mona in their hands, chanting hymns, shrieking fierce defiance, 61 and rushing wildly to and fro. But Suetonius and his legionaries fell upon them, and put to death man and woman, soldier, priest, and priestess without mercy.

¹ He was the chieftain of the *Silures*, the tribe which lived in South Wales

3 **The Revolt of Boadicea**—Meanwhile, however, in the east of the island, a terrible revolt had broken out Boadicea, queen of the Iceni, remonstrated with womanly vigour against an act of treachery on the part of Catus, the Roman treasurer, who had been left in command. Her husband, Prasutagus, king of the Iceni, a British tribe in Norfolk, had, in the hope of securing the friendship of the Romans, bequeathed one-half of his dominions to them, but he had no sooner died than they seized upon the whole. The reply of the infamous Catus to the remonstrance of Boadicea was to seize her, bind her, and, in presence of the Roman legionaries, have her scourged with rods like a slave. The Romans also struck and insulted her two daughters. Mad with rage and shame, she roused her countrymen, and towering high in her war-chariot, with her daughters shivering at her feet, told in short and fiery words the terrible story of her wrongs. One of the tallest of women, she stood with distorted features and flaming eyes, her long yellow hair streaming in the wind, a collar of gold upon her neck, and a long spear in her hand, and the words came quick and fast from her quivering lips, while the hoarse shouts of the Britons, with the clash and clang of darts and spears and swords upon their bucklers, replied fitly and readily to her eloquent and burning words. One Roman town after another was captured, and man, woman, and child were cut to pieces. The Roman colonies Camulodunum,¹ Verulamium,² and Londinium³—even when a flourishing place of commerce—were rased to the ground.

“Ran the land with Roman slaughter, multitudinous agonies,
Perished many a maid and matron many a valorous legionary,
Fell the colony, city, and citadel—London, Verulam, Camulodune.”

Suetonius, on receiving the news, returned with all speed, fell upon the army of Boadicea, and defeated her with terrible slaughter. With broken hopes and broken heart, with her friends lying dead, and her country in ruins, she drank a phial of poison, fell dead, and thus escaped the triumphal car of the Roman conqueror.⁴

¹ Colchester

² St. Albans

³ London. Camulodunum (Colchester) was the first Roman colony in Britain.

⁴ A Roman general who obtained a triumph exhibited his captives in a procession in chariots and triumphal cars.

4. Agricola.—The real conqueror of Britain was Julius Agricola, who was its governor from 78 to 84. He was an able statesman, a wise and mild governor, and under his rule many noble Britons assumed and used the Roman toga,¹ the Latin language, and the customs and manners of their conquerors. His life has been written by his son-in-law, Tacitus, the great Roman historian. To keep off the attacks of the wild North Britons, he drew a line of fortifications from the Firth of Forth to the Firth of Clyde. This line consisted of banks of earth, with earth-camps at intervals. He carried through with solid success seven campaigns, and, in the last, overthrew, at Mons Graupius, near Comrie in Perthshire, 30,000 Caledonians under Galgacus, who fell on the field of battle. He also sailed as far north as the Orkneys, and discovered—what had been hitherto quite unknown—that Britain was an island. He made excellent roads, built strong towns, distributed justice, and put an end to the power of the grasping Roman tax-gatherers,² until the Emperor Domitian, becoming jealous of his fame, recalled him to Rome in the year 84.

√ (i) The Romans divided the country into six provinces

- (1) *Britannia Prima*—all the country south of the Thames and the Bristol Channel
- (2) *Flavia Caesariensis*—which included the central counties, the Thames, Severn, Mersey, and Humber being the boundaries
- (3) *Britannia Secunda*—Wales and all the land west of the Severn and Dee
- (4) *Maxima Caesariensis*—From the Mersey and the Humber to the Tyne and the Wall of Hadrian
- (5) *Valentia*—From the Tyne to the Forth and the Wall Antoninus (*Graham's Dyke*)
- (6) *Vespasiana*—the country north of this wall (But this province was never conquered by the Romans)

√ (ii) The advantages to the Britons of the Roman occupation were numerous

- (1) The Romans gave them a strong and just government
- (2) They were the indirect means of introducing Christianity
- (3) They enlarged British commerce
- (4) They improved British agriculture, and Britain was for some time called the "Western Granary"
- (5) They made magnificent and lasting roads, parts of which still exist.
- (6) They built splendid towns. Their brick work was the best and most lasting the world has ever seen. Some of it still exists in as good a state as when it was put up. Bath was the favourite Roman watering place, and contained numerous temples, palaces, and theatres. In London there was a temple to Apollo, where Westminster Abbey now stands, and one to Diana on the site of St. Paul's.

The gown or robe worn only by Roman citizens
Called *paludamentum* (*publicans*)

§ 5 The Roman Settlements—The chief support of the Roman power in Great Britain lay in their settlements or colonies of veteran soldiers. These colonies were fortified towns, and the veterans were paid, not with pensions, but with land and privileges. These towns became little centres of order and civilisation. The Roman army in Britain, which generally numbered 30,000 foot and 6000 horse, consisted chiefly of legionaries drafted from distant parts of the Roman Empire, while a corresponding number of the British youth were sent to these distant countries to keep down revolts and disturbances there.¹ These troops were stationed in strong forts and camps, defended by triple lines of earthworks, and were also distributed along the great northern walls. Many patrician² Romans also settled in Britain, and the wealthier nobles had country-houses (*villæ*) in different parts of the island, to which they resorted during the summer, and where they ate the oysters and purchased the pure white pearls, the fame of which had reached them even in their Italian homes.

§ (i) The chief traces left in our language of the Roman occupation are found in six words

- (1) *Castra*—a camp. This word is found chiefly in three forms: *Chester* in the west and south, *caster* in the north and centre, and *cester* in the Midland counties.
- (2) *Strata* (*via*)—a paved road. This appears in our language as *street* and in names of places in three chief forms: *Strat* (in *Stratford*), *stret* (in *Stretton*), and *streat* (in *Streatlam*). All the towns with this prefix stood on the great Roman road from Richborough (near Ramsgate) to Chester.
- (3) *Colonia*—a settlement or colony, as in *Lincoln*.
- (4) *Portus*—a harbour, in *Bridport*, *Portsea*, etc.
- (5) *Vallum*—a palisaded rampart. This is found in *bailey* and *baillif*. The courts of Norman castles were called the inner and outer baileys.
- (6) *Fossa*—a ditch, found in *Fossway*, *Fosbrooke*.

It will be observed that three of these words relate to strong military works, not likely to disappear for centuries.

(ii) The traces of the Roman occupation in buildings and works are found in many places, such as Leicester, London, Bath, etc. Perhaps the greatest monument of Roman labour is the remains of the Roman Wall (Hadrian's) in Northumberland.

§ The following were the four chief roads

- (1) Watling³ Street—from Richborough (on Pegwell Bay), near Ramsgate, through London and Stratford on Avon to Chester, then on to Carnarvon, and also northwards into Scotland.

¹ This is a policy which the Romans always pursued, and which the composite empire of Austria pursues to the present day. Romans who belonged to the ranks of the nobility

² This is of course an *English* name—from *scade* (hence *waddle*) *vadla* a pilgrim. There are still streets in London and Canterbury which go by that name.

(2) *Ikenild Street*—from Tynemouth, through York, Derby, and Birmingham, to St David's

(3) *Irmin Street*—from St David's to Southampton.

(4) *Foss Way*—between Cornwall and Lincoln

English towns standing upon any of these "*Streets*" generally have the prefix *Stret*, *Strat*, or *Street*—as *Stretton*, *Stratford*, *Stretford*, *Streatham*, etc. All the traffic, all the marching to and fro of soldiers went on in England upon these roads, until the cutting of canals and the construction of railways

¶ 6 **Hadrian and Severus**—In the year 120 the Emperor Hadrian visited Great Britain, and raised the wall which was called by his name. It was built to keep out the fierce and hardy Picts, and was hence called the *Picts' Wall*, and also the *Vallum Hadrian*. It was built (A.D 121) of earth, between the Tyne¹ and the Solway Firth. In the reign of the Emperor Antoninus, called Pius, a new wall, on Agricola's line, between the Forth and the Clyde, was built in 139 by Lollius Urbicus, and received the name of *Vallum Antonini*². But the Caledonians still gave trouble, and the Romans had to repel attack after attack, or to purchase peace with money from these hardy northern men. Accordingly, the Emperor Severus, who had been formerly Governor of Britain, came over again in 208, and after beating back the Caledonians, strengthened Hadrian's Dyke with a wall of stone and series of stone forts. He had scarcely turned south when the Caledonians rose again, and Severus again gave the order to march to the north. But he never reached even the southern wall, for he was suddenly seized with illness, and died at Eboracum³ (York) in the year 211. In the year 360, the Scots, a fierce tribe from the north of Ireland, began to harass the west and north of Britain. In the year 364, the Continental English (whom the Britons called Saxons) came in their long ships to the east coast, and ravaged the lands.

7 **The Romans leave Britain**—The Romans remained in Britain, with varying fortunes, for two centuries longer. But, in the beginning of the fifth century, the Goths and other northern tribes were pressing upon the very heart of their empire, and troops in distant countries had to be withdrawn to guard the sacred city of Rome itself. Accordingly, in the early part of the year 410—the very year when Rome was besieged and taken—the Emperor Honorius wrote

¹ The town on the Tyne where the wall ended is still called *Wallsend*, and is famous for good coal.

² The country name for it was *Graham's Dyke*.

³ The Archbishop of York signs his name *Ebor* short for *Eboracensis*.

letters to the British cities, releasing them from all allegiance to the empire, and the Britons were left to themselves to guard their towns against the Caledonians. The Romans, then the greatest law-makers and road-makers¹ in the world, had made strong roads everywhere in the kingdom, and even into the heart of Scotland, had set up a practical system of law, and had administered justice with great impartiality and fairness. But, in the wars which followed the withdrawal of the Romans, their laws, institutions, manners, customs, and even their language, perished, and nothing was left to show that the Romans had ever been in this island except the ruins of some of their towns, coins, urns, and tablets now and then dug up from the ground, and a few words which have kept their place in the English language we speak to-day.

The population of Britain in the fourth century was under a million. Of these 22,000 were Roman troops.

SHORT CHRONOLOGY OF ROMAN PERIOD

1	Romans under Julius Cæsar invade Britain,	B.C. 55
2	Second Invasion, when Cassivellaunus is defeated by Cæsar,	, 54
3	Invasion by Claudius,	A.D. 43
4	London founded by the Romans,	, 49
5	Caractacus sent prisoner to Rome,	, 51
6	Boadicea slays 70,000 Romans and destroys several towns,	, 61
7	Romans slay 80,000 Britons and Boadicea poisons herself	, 61
8	Julius Agricola Governor of Britain,	, 78
9	Agricola builds a line of forts from the Forth to the Clyde,	, 81
10	Defeat of Galgacus at foot of Grampian Hills (near Comrie in Perthshire),	, 84
11	Hadrian builds a rampart (or earthwork) from Wallsend to the Solway Firth,	, 120
12	Severus builds a wall and a chain of stone forts along the line of Hadrian's Dyke,	, 210
13	Severus dies at Eboracum (York),	, 211
14	Diocletian Persecution. St. Alban the first British martyr	, 305
15	The Emperor Honorius frees Britain from its allegiance,	, 411
16	Soldiers are sent by Honorius to aid the Britons against the Picts and Scots (an Irish tribe)	, 418
17	Valentinian III. withdraws all troops, ²	, 426
18	The Britons send a letter to Rome for aid, which they called the "Groans of the Britons"	, 446

¹ There is a strong fundamental likeness between these two functions. Both spring from the same kind of systematising and organising mind. And a law is just a road—a road through the ordinary confusion of human affairs.

² Of the Western provinces that obeyed the Cæsars Britain was the last that was conquered and the first that was thrown away.—MACCARTHY

CHAPTER II

THE ENGLISH IN BRITAIN

1. **The English at Home (i)**—Three tribes, all belonging to the Low-German¹ branch of the widespread and powerful Teutonic race, lived near each other on the coast of the Baltic and the German Ocean. These were the Jutes, the Saxons, and the Angles. They all spoke one language, which received its name of *English* from the strongest tribe of the three. Unlike the classic races of Southern Europe, whose homes were clustered round a market-place or forum, alive with the hum of its crowded populace of quick wits and polished manners—moving rapidly about under a brilliant sun, these English Teutons loved a more scattered backwoodsman kind of settlement. The sea-swept flats of the Frisian shore and the gloomy pine-woods of the North German plain, broken only by mead or mere, present one vast monotonous expanse, within whose limits the lonely settlers would develop a simpler social life, slow of wit, dreamy, but home-loving. Round the homesteads ran the *tun* or town—a stout quick-set hedge, enclosing a simple community of peasants who lived upon and farmed their own land. Beyond lay their corn-fields, through which a few rough paths led to the common pasture-land, and, hemming in the little rustic world, the village *mark* of virgin forest, where on the moonlight eves played the elves and the nixes, the goblins and the gnomes, and, when the mantle of the winter's snow stilled the haunted glades, where the howl of the villagers' worst enemy, the wolf, was nightly heard.

2 **The English at Home (ii)**—They had no kings, but each little community ruled itself, administered justice to its members,

¹ Low German means the German—people and language—in the lowlands, High German, the German on the high table lands of the south. The river *Main* is usually taken as the boundary. The German names are *Platt Deutsch* (=Flat Dutch) and *Hoch Deutsch* (=High Dutch).

and conducted its own affairs. In time of war, men of the same family and village fought side by side, encouraged each other to acts of desperate valour, and brought home to the fireside the stories of the brave who fought and fell. The unit of this society was the family, the strongest social tie was the tie of blood. The domestic virtues were the special and almost the only virtues of the Teutonic home. If one person injured another in life or limb, compensation was exacted not from the individual, but from the family or house. This compensation was called the "blood-wite." These little farmer-republics were composed of eorls or freemen, and of eorls or nobles, and were ruled by selected eorls, who were called ealdormen. They met for public business under a sacred tree or at a moot-hill,¹ where peace or war was decided on, land bought and sold (by the simple transference of a turf cut from the soil), and laws were made. At first, all men able to bear arms met here, but soon it was found necessary to select the oldest and wisest—the Witan, hence the meeting was called the Meeting of the Wise—the Witenagemote²—the wisest selected as representatives of the whole body of freemen.

(i) "Each little village of the old English community possessed a general independence of its own and lay apart from all the others, often surrounded by a broad belt or *mark* of virgin forest. It consisted of a clearing like those of the American backwoods, where a single family or hundred had made its home, and preserved its separate independence intact. Each of these families was known by the name of its real or supposed ancestor, the patronymic being formed by the addition of the syllable *ing* '—ALLR:

The suffix *ing* meant originally *son of*. Thus Alfred was called 'Alfred Ethelwulfing' = Alfred the son of Ethelwulf. The pedigree of Ida, king of Northumbria, ran thus: Ida was Eopling, Eoppa was Esiug, etc. that is, Ida was the son of Eoppa, Eoppa was the son of Esiu, and so on, up to Woden. Then the suffix came to mean *part*, as in *farthing* (fourth part), *tithing* (tenth part), *riding* (formerly *thriding* = third part).

(ii) "The *mark* or border of woodland, heath, or fen was jealously guarded as a frontier and natural defence for the little predatory and agricultural community. Whoever crossed it was bound to give notice of his coming by blowing a horn, else he was cut down at once as a stealthy enemy. The marksman wished to remain separate from all others, and only to mix with those of his own kin. —ALLEN.

The word *mark* meant originally a *stroke* or *line*; then it came to mean a *border* or *limit*, and, last, the *country* or *land* which is bordered or limited. Thus on the Continent, Finland is called *Finnmark* and we have *Danmark* (=the mark of the Danes), *Brandenmark* (=the land of the Brandenburgers) etc.

3 The Religion of the English.—The religion of these English farmers was the heathen religion of the whole Teutonic family.

¹ Meeting hill. The word *mote* or *moot* comes from *meet* and is still found in *scrienagemote*, *folk mote*, *wardmote* etc.

² Witen is the possessive case of Witan.

Their chief god was Odin or Woden, the war-god, and the guardian of boundaries and of highroads, they also worshipped Thor or Thunder, the god of air, Frea or Fria, the goddess of joy and fruitfulness, Soetere, the god of hate, and Tew, the god of the dark. All these names still exist in our names for the days of the week.¹ Eostre was the goddess of the dawn and of spring—the dawn of the year, and her name still survives in our spring festival of *Easter*. Their heaven was Valhalla, and any man who died on the field of battle was at once received into that heaven of high delight, where he spent his time for ever in feasting and drinking in the evening, and in fighting and hacking and hewing during the hvelong day.

(i) The Kings of England were in the habit of tracing their descent to Woden, 'father of victory, wisest of gods and men.' He had only one eye he had sold the other for the Water of Wisdom, which enabled him to know all things past and future.

(ii) The Old English also believed in smaller deities such as *clies*, who were fairies of the woods and wells, of the fields and meadows, and *Elf* was a very frequent prefix for names. Thus *Elfgifu* means the "Gift of the Elves", *Aelfred* or *Alfred*, the "Counsel of the Elves," etc. *Elf* is an old Indo European word meaning *little*, the elves are the "little folk" ("wee folk, good folk, trooping all together")

4. The English at Sea—These English farmers, hunters, and fishermen were skilful alike in the use of the sword and the spade, of the oar and the sail. They had a passion for the sea and a fierce joy in the storm, they found strength in the terrible gales of the Northern Sea, and were at home on the most tempestuous billows. They were utterly careless—the younger men among them—of their lives, the sea was "their school of war, and the storm their friend", and the Britons of the coast knew them as "sea-whelps," "sea-dogs," and "sea-wolves." For the last two hundred years—from about 250 to 450 A D—they had been in the habit of coming over in their war-galleys, and making a sudden swoop on the British coast. From their long knives—seaxe—they were known as Knife-men or Saxons, and even in the third century the Romans had appointed a governor to guard the British coast against them, who was known as the Count of the Saxon Shore.² But now, in the middle of the fifth

¹ We have Woden in Wednesday and Wednesbury and in Odensee in Funen Thor in Thursday Frea in Friday Soetere in Saturday and Tew in Tuesday

² Comes Littoris Saxonici. The term Saxon is said to come from seaxe, a short sword, and to have denoted a confederacy of tribes from Jutland to the mouth of the Rhine

century, hearing that the Romans had deserted Britain, they cast an eye of longing and of earth-hunger upon this island, and very soon they found a pretext for coming over

The war galley or the English was called *asc* (=ash), because it was made of that wood. It was a long row boat, with high prow and stern. To the right side of the pointed stern was fixed an oar like rudder, hence this side of a ship is still called the *star* (=steer) *board*.

5 **The First English Landing** — English history, as distinguished from British history, now begins. It begins with the landing of Hengist and Horsa,¹ two Jutish chiefs, at Ebbsfleet, in the Isle of Thanet. When the Romans went away in the year 426, the Britons of the north, called Picts, poured over the two walls, and laid waste with fire and sword the towns in which the Romanised and now less hardy Britons dwelt. They were in league with the Scots, a tribe of marauders from Ireland, who were at the same time engaged in harrying the western coast of the island. Thus from three different sides the more civilised Britons were attacked,—from the north and west by their own uncivilised kinsmen, and from the east by Teutons. Pressure of population in Holstein and North Germany, and hunger for land in the younger men, sent the Teutons roving in quest of a new home, but tradition tells us that one band came over to fight for the Britons on a special invitation. This came, in 449, from Vortigern, a British chief, who was hard pressed by the Picts. Hengist and Horsa drove back the invading Picts, and received as their reward the possession of the Isle of Thanet. They sent word home to their friends how fertile the land was, and how weak the people, and thus began the stream of English immigration into the goodly island of Great Britain.

Hengist
and Horsa
449

6 **The English Immigration** — The young men from the England on the Continent came streaming over in larger and yet larger numbers, and very soon Hengist and Horsa were obliged to turn their arms against the very men they had come over to help. They cut their way through Kent, and at a great battle at Aylesford on the Medway, Horsa² fell in the moment of victory. With a burning heathen hate against the Britons, they spared neither age

¹ Both words mean simply *horse*. The arms of Kent are a horse.

² His grave was marked by a flint heap, which is still called *Horsestead*.

nor sex,¹ they fired the houses and the temples, cut down the priest at the altar, and levelled palaces with the ground. The struggle of the Britons was brave and obstinate, but in eight years Hengist was able to proclaim himself Lord of Kent. All this is merely tradition, and no one knows how much historical truth there is in these stories. What is certain is that, from the middle of the fifth century, large numbers of Teutons crossed into this island.

Hengist
Lord of
Kent
457.

7 More English—For about a century after this, bands of other invaders, chiefly Saxons and Angles, from the continental home of our race—a country which lies in the low flats round the mouths of the Elbe, the Weser, and the Rhine, poured in upon the south and east shores of Britain, drove the British Celts west and north before them, and settled in the richer lands of the plains and lowlands. The Jutes seem to have settled chiefly in Kent and the Isle of Wight, the Saxons in the middle and south of Britain, and the Angles on the eastern coast. Between the middle of the fifth and the end of the sixth century, we find standing out, with greater or less clearness, six or eight kingdoms between the Firth of Forth and the English Channel.

8 The Kingdoms of the English—Besides the kingdom of Kent, already mentioned, we can trace the kingdom of the South Saxons,² which included Sussex and Surrey, and which was founded by Etna in 490—To the west of them lay the kingdom of the West Saxons—afterwards called Wessex—which included all the counties west of Sussex and south of the Thames, with the exception of Devon, Somerset, and Cornwall, which were still British, and which went under the name of *West Wales*. This kingdom was founded by Cerdic in 519—Between the Humber and the Forth stretched an extensive and strong domain, called the kingdom of Northumbria, founded by Ida in 547—The kingdom of the East Angles covered what is now called Norfolk, Suffolk, and Cambridge, and was founded by Uffa in 575—The great midland kingdom of the *March-land*,

¹ This did not happen every where. For Sir E. Creasy says: 'By the union of British women with Saxon warriors, the British element was largely preserved in our nation.'

² It must be carefully noted that in the beginning of every kingdom it receives its name from the people, and their name afterwards passes to the land. We shall see numerous instances of this.

Ruler of all the kingdoms The three most powerful were Northumbria, Mercia, and Wessex.

If we accept the Heptarchy as existing for a given time, the seven kingdoms were Northumbria, Mercia, East Anglia, Essex, Sussex, Wessex, and Kent

10 *The Three English Kingdoms*—In the struggle for the overlordship the lead was taken by Northumbria, and it held that place from 607 to 685. One of its greatest kings was Edwin, who was Overlord of the whole of England except Wessex. His rule was so strong, his will so firm, and his judgments so true and righteous, that it became a proverb in his realm, that “a woman with her babe might walk scatheless from sea to sea in Edwin’s day.” His kingdom was strengthened on the north by a fort, which, standing on a bold and picturesque rock and commanding the neighbouring sea, bears his name to this day—the stronghold or *Burg of Edwin*, or *Edinburgh*. In one word, he was Overlord of the English kingdoms which lay between the Forth and the Thames. The capital of the kingdom was not London, but York, its ecclesiastical capital was not Canterbury, but Lindisfarne, or *Holy Island*. For one hundred years, political order, religion, and literature had found a home in the kingdom of Northumbria, until it fell in 685, with its king, on the bloody field of Nechtansmere, in Fifeshire, while struggling against a strong army of Northern Picts. Mercia now rose to the highest place, and kept it from 685 to 823. Ethelbald and Offa were its two greatest kings. Ethelbald styled himself “*King of the Southern English*”, and Offa made a clean sweep of the Welsh¹—for by that name the English called the British—and for ever put them down. He planted a military colony of Englishmen west of the Severn, drew a strong earthwork from the mouth of the Wye to the mouth of the Dee, from Chepstow to Chester, which went by the name of Offa’s Dyke, and forced the Welsh to keep behind it. A few years after the death of Offa, Egbert,² king of Wessex, marched into Mercia, and compelled it to submit to his overlordship. And now the dominion of a single king stretched at last from the Firth of Forth to the Straits of Dover, and accordingly, Egbert,

Supremacy
of North
umbria
607 685.

Egbert
King of
the English
827.

¹ *Welshas*=foreigners. The same root is found in *Walnut*, *Wallflower*, *Wallachia* etc. It is worthy of special note that whenever a Teutonic people stand face to face with a foreign people, that foreign people is called by them *Welsh*. Thus the Germans to this day call the French and Italians *Die Welschen* and an Alsatian going into France, will say ‘I am going into Welshland.’

² The word means *Eyebright*. The *y* in the word *eye* was originally a *g*.

King of Wessex, and Overlord of Mercia and Northumbria, took upon himself, for the first time in Britain, the proud title of KING OF THE ENGLISH¹

THE SAXON KINGDOMS

(Called "The Heptarchy, and by some "The Octarchy")

(i) **Cantware** (Kantia or Kent) Founded 457 by the Jutes under Hengist It included the isles of Tenet (*Thanet*) and Scepig (*Sheppey*)

This was the first state founded by an English or 'Saxon' tribe, and it was also the first into which Christianity was introduced In 596 Augustine and his companions landed and settled in *Cantuarabyrig* (Canterbury), the capital King Ethelbert married a daughter of Charibert, the Christian king of Paris, and it was in his reign that Augustine came over

Cantuarabyrig=the *byrig* (burgh) *wara* (of the men) *Cant* (of Kent) The word *wara* is the genitive plural of *wer* a man—an old English word akin to the Lat. *vir*

(ii) **South Seaxe** (South Saxony or Sussex) It was founded by Ella in 490 and included all Sussex and a large part of Surrey up to the Thames Capital, Kingston.

(iii) **West Seaxe** (West Saxony or Wessex) It was founded in 519 by Cerdic, from whom our Queen Victoria is descended It grew to include Hants, Berks, Wilts Dorset, Somerset, Devonshire, and a small part of Surrey Capital Wintanceaster (Winchester)

(iv) **East Seaxe** (East Saxony or Essex) It was founded in 527 by Ercenwin, and included Middlesex, Essex, and a part of Hertfordshire Capital, Lundenwic (London)

Sebert, the king from 597 to 616, built a church on Thorney Island in the Thames, on a site of an ancient Roman temple to Apollo, and this church is now Westminster Abbey The only other important king was Offa, in 700 But the kings of Essex were generally *Under Kings*, and paid tribute to some other king as their *Overlord*

(v) **Bernicia**. Founded by Ida an Angle in 547 It included Northumberland, and it stretched from the Tees up to the Firth of Forth, and thus included part of what is now called Scotland.

Deirnas (Deira) Founded by Ella in 560 It included Yorkshire, Durham, part of Lancaster and Westmoreland These two kingdoms were united, by the marriage of Ida's grandson with the daughter of Ella, into one kingdom, called

Northumbria. Eadwine (or Edwin) was the greatest of the Northumbrian kings and the most powerful prince of the so called Heptarchy His frontier reached the Firth of Forth, where he planted a strong fortress, called Eadwine's Burgh, now Edinburgh He was owned as Overlord by the whole English race south of the Humber, except Kent, and Kent was connected with him by his marrying the daughter of the king He embraced Christianity and fell while doing battle against Penda, the great Pagan king of Mercia Oswi (642-670) was the last of the princes of the "Heptarchy" who held the position and title of *Eretwalda* Northumbria was long the home of literature and religion in England In the monastic school founded by Archbishop Egbert,

¹ It must be specially noted that he did not call himself king of England The word England did not exist till Edward son of Alfred took the title of King of England in 901

the celebrated scholar *Alcuin* was trained, who was invited by Charles the Great (in French, *Charlemagne*) to come and teach his subjects. In Northumbria, also, was the great monastery of Jarrow where *Bæda* ("the Venerable Bede") wrote his "Ecclesiastical History of the English Nation". Here, too, was Lindisfarne, a See founded by *Aidan*, a monk from Iona, of which St. Cuthbert was bishop in 685, and which was for one hundred years the centre of English Christianity, just as York was the centre of politics. In the monastery of Whitby, *Cædmon* (664), the first English (or "Saxon") poet, was a monk. He wrote a poem called "The Creation". *Cædmon* is the founder of English poetry. *Bæda* is called by Burke "the father of English learning", and, on account of his school of six hundred monks, he is called by Mr. Green "the father of our national education".

(vi) *East Engle* (East Anglia) Founded by *Uffa* in 575. It included Norfolk, Suffolk, Cambridge, and part of Bedfordshire. Capital, *Northwic* (Norwich).

(vii) *Myrcna* (*Mercia*) Founded by the *Angles* under *Cridda* in 582. The word means *Marchland* or *Borderland* and it "marched with" all the other kingdoms, and contained the central and western English counties, from the *Dee* and the *Humber* down to the *Severn* and the *Thames*. (The western border was long called the *Welsh Marches*.) It was the last state founded by the *Teutons* from the Continent.

The greatest king of this state was *Penda* (626). Another great king was *Offa*, the enemy, and then the ally, of *Charlemagne*.

SHORT CHRONOLOGY OF ENGLISH PERIOD I

(ENGLAND UNDER ENGLISH KINGS)

1	English land in Britain,	449
	Augustine converts Kent,	597
2	Edwin, King of Northumbria, becomes Bretwalda or Overlord of Britain,	626
	(a) St. Aidan settles at Holy Island,	636
	(b) Wessex becomes Christian,	639
	(c) Cædmon, the first English poet (a monk at Whitby),	664
3	Ethelbald, King of Mercia, conquers Wessex,	733
	Death of Bæda (the Venerable Bede),	755
4	First landing of Danes in England,	787
5	Egbert, King of Wessex,	800
	(a) He defeats Mercians at Ellandunc,	822
	(b) He is Overlord of England south of Thames,	823
	(c) He is Overlord of all the English kingdoms,	827
	(d) He routs the Danes and the Britons of Cornwall at Hengist Down,	835

¹ We have the same word in *Den mark*, *Finn mark*, the *Mark* of Brandenburg and in *marquis*, *markgraf* etc.

CHAPTER III

WESSEX AND THE DANES

1 Wessex and the Danes—It was out of Wessex, and it was by the labours of the kings of Wessex, that England and the English Constitution, as we find it to day, mainly grew Egbert was crowned at Winchester, then the chief city of the English But he did not long enjoy his new position in tranquillity The miseries and horrors which the English or Saxons brought upon the British, these the Danes now brought in threefold measure upon the English They attacked the new kingdom upon two sides one party sailed up the Thames, and plundered London, another landed at Teignmouth, and swept the shire of Devon The same terrible sights that had burst upon the panic-stricken eyes of the British, three hundred years before, now amazed the English,—the same line of blazing homesteads and corn-ribs against the midnight sky, the same slaughter of priests,

Battle of
Hengist Down 836 women, and infants (some of them tossed from spear to spear by the heathen and bloodthirsty worshippers of Woden), and the same levelling of church and palace with

the ground Egbert defeated them in 836 at the battle of Hengist

Death of
Egbert 839 Down, on the Cornish side of the river Tamar, and his son Ethelwulf drove back the British of West Wales, who had marched to effect a junction with them Egbert¹ died in

the year 839, and was buried in the cathedral at Winchester

(1) Egbert was king of Wessex in 800, and brought all the other kingdoms in England under his rule in 827, and became the first Bretwalda who handed down his power to his heir Before this Mercia had been the most powerful state Egbert had spent fourteen years at the court of Charles the Great (or, as he is more commonly called, *Charlemagne*) The Britons in Wales and Cumberland were still unsubdued.

¹ The Ealdorman of a corner of Hampshire thus grew step by step into the King of the West Saxons the King of the Saxons the King of the English the Emperor of all Britain the lord in later times of a dominion reaching into every quarter of the world. —FREDERICK

The first were called *Shoppes*. The first Landing of the Danes in England took place in 787, in which they landed in the Isle of Sheppey.

✓ 2. **Æthelwulf and his Four Sons**—Æthelwulf succeeded his father Egbert in 839, and it was in his reign, in the year 857 that the Danes for the first time passed the winter in England. They built a fort and spent the winter months in the Isle of Sheppey. Æthelwulf was in turn succeeded by his four sons, Æthelbald, Æthelbert, Æthelred I. and Alfred. These four all reigned one after the other. It was during the reign of Æthelred I. that the great Danish¹ invasion of Wessex began in 871. This was no longer a series of raids and midnight attacks, of sudden swoops and speedy retreats, but an invasion by host after host,—a steady inflow of Danish heathens, who conquered as they marched, and settled where they conquered. In 870, they had invaded East Angles, captured its under-king, Edmund, offered him his life and kingdom if he would renounce Christianity, and on his refusal bound him to a tree and shot him to death with arrows. He was long known as the martyr St. Edmund, his body upon a tree still forms the central figure upon the church windows of our eastern coast, and the Abbey of St. Edmundsbury was erected over his grave. In five years the Danes had torn Mercia, ^{Alfred King} Northumbria, and East Angles from the overlordship of ^{of Wessex} East Angles, and in the same year of 871, the young 871. King Alfred (then only twenty-two) ascended the throne with a terribly difficult piece of work in front of him.

(1) **Æthelwulf**, the eldest surviving son of Egbert, succeeded him in 839. He visited Rome with his youngest son Alfred (afterwards the Great), in 855. In the ninth century the intercourse between England and Rome was tolerably frequent. There was in Rome an "English School," and also a quarter where the English visitors resided. In the *Saxon Chronicle*, under year 865, we find this of the Danes: "The heathen men for the first time remained this year over winter in Sheppey."

✓ (2) **Æthelbert's** reign was an almost constant struggle with the Danes. These men especially attacked the monasteries, which were the seats and centres of all the learning of the country. The monasteries, as well as the cathedrals, had schools attached to them, where scholars were admitted without fee. There had also libraries and many of the monks were engaged in making copies of books, in beautiful writing and most exquisite characters upon parchment—the initials of each chapter being splendidly illuminated, and the books themselves richly and tastefully bound. The monks also improved the art of agriculture. The towns of Durham, Peterborough, Ely, and others grew out of the monasteries founded there.

¹ The Danish word was *heathen*, from the heathen and heathenish, but the English, or Anglo-Saxons, had become Christians.

✓ (iii) Ethelred I. succeeded in 866, and had all his life to fight with the Danes. Alfred, his brother, was his chief adviser and the principal commander of his army. About this time the word *Earl* (probably borrowed from the Danish *Earl*) came into use instead of *Ealdorman*.

✓ (iv) The Danes (or Northmen, Norsemen, Normans) sailed in their strong long ships into the broad river mouths, landed, built a fort or stockaded earthwork—to which they might retreat, and from that point laid waste the country, plundered the churches and monasteries, and then sailed home with their booty. In the North of England, they burnt the churches, schools, and libraries, killed the priests and monks, and thus destroyed all learning in that part of the land. The towns in which they settled have the termination by, as Derby, Whitby, etc.

They were called *vikings* or creek-dwellers from *vik* a creek inlet, or bay.

(v) The town of Bury St. Edmunds was also called after Edmund, the under king of East Anglia.

✓ 3 Alfred—Alfred, when a child, had been sent for his education to Rome, where the Pope, Leo IV, had adopted him as his godson. His mother Osberga, had early fired him with a love for literature, and though he was throughout his life the victim of an obscure disease and of terrible pains, the intermittent attacks of which left him weak and spent, he earned for himself, by his unceasing labours, the highest place in England as a soldier, a lawgiver, and a scholar. He had not been long upon the throne when he saw that Wessex must fight, not merely for its overlordship over the other kingdoms, but for its own existence. Early in 878, a Danish army, under Guthrum of East Anglia, marched suddenly upon Wessex and overran the whole country. Alfred had to flee in disguise, and his army was broken up. He made his way to a small fort which he had built on the Isle of Athelney,¹ an island formed at and by² the junction of the Tone and the Parret. From this point he made excursions, often alone, to spy out the strength and the positions of the Danes.

✓ (i) On one of these excursions he stayed for some days at the hut of a neat-herd, who kept the secret of his identity even from his wife. Alfred was one day mending his bow and arrows at the fireside, and the neat-herd's wife asked him to keep his eye on some barley cakes she was baking, and see that they did not burn. Alfred promised to watch them, but his eyes were filled with his arrows and his bow,

¹ *Fy* is a form of the old English word for water which was *ea* and *ealand* meant *island* or the land in the water. Thence *ea* or *e* came itself to mean *island* and we have it in such words as *Jersey* (= *Seamus ey*), *Angelsea* (= *Angles ea*) *Battersea* (= *St. Peter's ea*) and *Athelney* (= the *e* of the *Atheln* or *no. 12*). Milton always writes *Island* the *s* in our modern *island* is an intruder from *insula*.

² "At and by." When two streams meet, they lose much of their power to carry down mud and stone. Hence they drop a large quantity and this deposit of mud and stones settling under the lee of the tongue of land between the two currents grows larger and larger and in time becomes an island. At the confluence of the Blue and White Nile where Khartoum stands an island has been formed in this way.

his mind with the miseries and disasters of his kingdom, and he forgot all about the cakes. The good woman, on her return, scolded him terribly, and called him a lazy good for nothing, and hinted, in strong old fashioned English, that though he was very slow in turning the cakes, he would be quick enough in eating them.

(ii) With Alfred began the supremacy of Wessex. The kings of Wessex, from Alfred to Ethelred, gradually brought all England—Saxon (Essex, Sussex, etc.), Mercian, and Danish—under their own rule, expelled all under kings, and compelled the Welsh and Scottish Kings to become their vassals. They thus made themselves not only Kings of England, but Emperors of Britain.

(iii) Alfred, before his death, was Overlord of all Britain south of the Humber—English, Danish, Welsh, and Corn Welsh (=Welsh of the Corn or Horn of Land).

4. Defeat of the Danes.—Alfred was often visited in Athelney

by his friends, who brought him tidings from time to time of the condition of the country. One day they brought him the news that the Ealdorman (or Earl) of Devon had surprised and defeated a band of Danes under Ubba. Thinking the time for action had come at last,



The Danelagh

Alfred disguised himself as a minstrel, made his way into the camp of Guthrum, played and sang to the Danes for several days, and picked up a great deal of very useful information. He now called the thanes of Somerset to his standard, put himself at the head of the West Saxon troops, surprised the Danes at a hill in Wiltshire called Ethandune,¹ and defeated them.

Battle of
Ethandune
878.

¹ Now Edington

with terrible slaughter Guthrum and his chiefs submitted to be baptized, a treaty was made at Wedmore, by which the Danes agreed to remain to the east of Watling Street,¹ and to be the vassals of King Alfred. And now the Danes were confined to the Danelagh, and the land had rest from them for ten years

(i) Ethandune=Edington, in Wiltshire.

(ii) Alfred had the figure of a great white horse cut upon the chalk hill that over looks the battle field. This figure is cleaned and cleared up every year, and the country side takes a holiday. See Tom Hughes's "Scouring of the White Horse"

5 King Alfred at Peace—Alfred was a king in far more than in name. he was the first man in his kingdom, and he was king in actual fact, by thought and work, as well as by title. He was not only a brave warrior and an able general,—he was also a wise legislator, a diligent literary man, and a hard-working schoolmaster. He was, moreover, the founder of the English fleet, which has ever since been the right arm of the British Empire. He collected, arranged, and classified the old laws or "dooms"² of the English kingdoms, he added to them the Ten Commandments, and he abolished in many cases the old "blood-wite," or fine for attacks upon the person. He studied for eight hours every day, another eight hours he gave to public business. Among all his hard work, he found or made time to superintend a school for the young nobles of his court. He translated, without assistance, several Latin works,—among others, a book on Universal History, and also a work on English Ecclesiastical History by the Venerable Bede. He may be said to be the father of English prose literature³. Before his time, the only literature in the English language was in verse. "Prose she had none." Besides this, he sent to foreign countries and invited over learned men to teach his people, he sent out several expeditions,—one, under a Norwegian skipper, to explore the northern coast of Norway and the White Sea, and another to the Baltic, and he even sent envoys to the Christian Churches of Jerusalem and of India. Thus he was the first man to establish a connection between England

¹ Watling Street was the old English or "Saxon" name of the great Roman road which ran from Dover to Chester. The word means *street of pilgrims*. By the Wedmore treaty Guthrum accordingly received East Anglia and parts of Mercia and Essex. Another army of Danes held Northumbria. The most renowned of the Danish pirates was one Hastings.

² This is the noun from the verb *deem*=to judge. A judge in Old English and Lowland Scotch was called a *dempter* and his sentence was a *doom*.

³ This title is usually given to Sir John Mandeville (1322-1400); but his English is largely mixed with French words.

and the mighty empire which now forms the largest and most thickly-peopled part of our foreign dominions. All this was done by him in the midst of an every-day battle with pain and weakness and disease, until at last, worn out with work for the good of his people, he died at Farringdon, in Berkshire, in the year 901. He was buried in the New Minster at Winchester,—a cathedral which he had himself begun, and which was finished by his son Edward.

Death of
Alfred
901.

(i) Alfred not only built a fleet, he fortified all towns that were exposed to the Danish attacks, and he so organised the *fyrd* (or militia), that one half of it was always under arms, while the other half was working peacefully in the fields.

(ii) His maxim was that the welfare of a kingdom was dependent on the welfare of the priest, the fighting man, and the farmer.

(iii) Alfred the Great succeeded in 871, but to little more than the mere title of King. He was born at Wantage, in Berkshire, in 849. His life falls into two well marked divisions,—the first of war, the second of peace. In war, he (1) created a system of militia, (2) erected strong fortresses, (3) fought fifty six battles, (4) built a fleet of ships twice as long as those of the Danes, and (5) gave up a large part of his own income to works for the benefit of the country. In peace, he (1) had a survey made of the country—the record of it is the “Dome of Winchester,” (2) codified the laws of former princes—in the “Dome Boke” (*Book of Domes or Doms=Judgments*), (3) established schools, and invited able men from abroad to teach in them, and (4) wrote and “published” many valuable books (chiefly translations).

✓ 6 Edward the Elder —King Alfred was succeeded by his eldest son Edward, called the Elder, to distinguish him from Edward the Confessor. He was an able soldier and a vigorous ruler, and he resolved to reconquer the Danelagh. His sister, Ethelflæd, the widow of the Ealdorman, and now the “Lady,” of Mercia, a wise and able woman, had conquered and seized upon the Five Boroughs of the Danes,—Derby, Lincoln, Leicester, Stamford, and Nottingham. On her death, he annexed these towns, and also the whole of East Anglia, which was by this time almost purely Danish. He was now not only King of the English, but Emperor of All Britain, for the Scots and Welsh of Strathclyde—a district which stretched from the Firth of Clyde to Morecambe Bay—owned him for their sovran and overlord.

Edward the
Elder
901

7 The Northmen —But the Northmen¹ (Normans, or Norsemen)

¹ These men from the north were all of Teutonic blood, and they had emigrated to Denmark, Sweden and Norway (=North-way). They were so feared in England for several hundred years, that a prayer was introduced into the Litany, ‘A Northmannis et manibus Northmannorum libera nos Domine!’ “From the Normans, and the hands of the Normans O Lord, deliver us!”

were destined to be the fate and the rulers of Britain. Under the name of Danes, they were its perpetual and never-resting enemies, but under the name of Normans they were soon after to become its conquerors and permanent rulers. And, just when Edward was putting down the English Northmen or Danes, a new colony of Northmen was being founded in France, from which the greatest changes and events were one day to spring.

8 Normandy.—This colony was founded by a fierce Norwegian soldier, called Rolf¹ the Ganger. He was called Ganger or Walker, because, when he strode across one of the small cream coloured Norwegian horses of his country, his legs were so long that they reached the ground, and he could not ride. This man had kept Charles the Simple, king of the West Franks, and his people in such continual terror, that at last Charles offered him a province and his own daughter in marriage, if he would turn Christian and stop harrying the country. He accepted the offer, and was baptized by the name of Robert. He was called Duke or Count Robert of the Northmen, and his province—which embraced the best land on both sides of the Seine, with Rouen as its capital—was called the land of the Northmen, Terra Northmannorum or Normandy. This happened in the year 911, and exactly one hundred and fifty-five years afterwards, a descendant of Rolf's invaded England and permanently established his dynasty here.

(i) Edward I. (the Elder) succeeded his father, Alfred the Great, in 901, and reigned till his death in 925. He received the homage both of Scotland and of Wales.

(ii) In this reign the Northmen (or Danes) turned their attention from England to France, and Rollo (Ralph or Rou) compelled Charles the Simple to cede Normandy to him. (William the Conqueror was the seventh Duke of Normandy. Normans also seized Sicily in the eleventh century.)

¹ Spelled also *Folph*. It is the same as our *Folph* or *Panulphus*. In Latin it became *Follo* and in French *Fou*. There is a famous French bottle—once called the *Foman de Fou*.

9 Early Scotland.—In the earliest times of which we have any trustworthy knowledge of Scotland, the part north-east of the Forth was called Pictland, what we now call Argyll was Dalriada, and south of Dalriada stretched the kingdom of Strathclyde. The small but fertile region between the Forth and the Tweed was called Northern Bernicia. Part of it lying south of the Firth of Forth was

called Saxony by the Celts, because it was inhabited by a Teutonic-speaking people whom the Celts spoke of as Saxons, and it is this part that afterwards received the name of Lothian—The first Scottish King of any note who presents himself in history is Kenneth Macalpin, king of Scottish Dalriada, who subdued Pictland and united it to his own territories. This was in the year 843. Kenneth died in 859.—We next hear, about the middle of the tenth century, of Constantine, who resigned his crown to become Abbot of the Monastery of Culdees at St Andrews, which was then the holy city of Scotland.

SHORT CHRONOLOGY OF ENGLISH PERIOD II

(ENGLAND UNDER ENGLISH KINGS)

1. Alfred born,	849
(a) Is sent to Rome,	853
(b) Danes invade Wessex,	871
2. Alfred King of Wessex,	871
(a) Alfred defeats Danes at Exeter,	877
(b) Danes overrun Wessex,	878
(c) Alfred makes peace (Peace of Wedmore),	878
3. Death of Alfred,	901
4. Edward the Elder mounts the throne,	901
Is owned as Overlord by Northumbria, Strathclyde, and the Scots,	924

CHAPTER IV

THE EMPIRE OF BRITAIN AND THE DANISH CONQUEST

1 **Athelstan**—Edward was succeeded in 925 by his son Athelstan, whom his grandfather, the good King Alfred, had girded with a Saxon¹ sword set in a golden scabbard. In 937, a Danish viking called Anlaf appeared with a fleet in the Humber, and this appearance was the signal for the Danish chiefs of the East and the British chiefs of the West to rise in revolt against the English king. They were joined by Scotland and Strathclyde. Athelstan met them at

Battle of Brunanburgh, 937 Brunanburgh,² defeated them with great slaughter, and utterly broke, for his own lifetime, the power of the Danes.

Long after, Saxon gleemen sang at banquets, after the nobles had gorged themselves with beef and excited themselves with mead, how the soldiers of Athelstan, "Lord of Earls and Ring-giver to Warriors," fought the livelong day against the Northern men, and "hewed them mightily" with "swords sharp from the grindstone." He annexed Northumberland, and there was again only one King in the whole of England. To make clear their claim over Britain, and to assert their independence of the Emperor of the West and the Emperor of the East (on the continent of Europe), Athelstan and his successors styled themselves Emperors of Britain. Athelstan died in 940, after a reign of fifteen years.

✓ (1) **Athelstan**. The victory at Brunanburgh brought him such renown that four great princes married his sisters. These were the Emperor Otho of Germany, Charles the Simple of France, Louis, Count of Aquitaine, and Hugues (Hugh), Count of Paris.

¹ This is the old *seax*—short sword or long knife. 'The *sax* is the short chopper used by slaters in cutting and shaping slates. The word is the Saxon *seax*—a short sword. It is still in use in the west of England.'—BARRING GOULD.

² It is not known where this spot is, but it no doubt lay north of the Humber. Professor Franck Bright says it is near Beverley in Yorkshire.

the ancestor of the Capet line of French Kings. One of his laws shows his strong desire to encourage commerce: a merchant who had made three voyages with his own ship was to be raised to the rank of athane. Athelstan was also a promoter of learning, and he had parts of the Scriptures translated into English.

2. Edmund and Edred.—Athelstan was succeeded by his brother, Edmund the Magnificent¹. He reigned only six years, and met his death at the hands of a highway robber. The King was keeping the feast of St. Augustine at a small town in Gloucestershire, when there strode into the hall Liöfa, a robber, who had been banished the kingdom six years before. Liöfa took his seat beside one of the chief earls, and not far from the King himself. "Bid that man go!" said Edmund to his cupbearer. But Liöfa only showed his knife. Then the King, in a fury of rage, sprang at and grappled with him. Both fell, the robber undermost, but the robber had freed his right hand, and with his dagger stabbed the King from below, before he could be stopped by the attendants, who cut him to pieces.—Edred succeeded his brother in 916. The only thing which stands out with any clearness in his reign, is the fact that his chief adviser was the great abbot and statesman Dunstan.

✓ (1) Edmund I. and Edred. Edmund was defeated by the Danish prince Anlaf (Olave), and had to surrender to him all that part of England which lay north of Watling Street. Aided by Malcolm of Scotland, he subdued the Britons of Cumberland, and handed over that country, then called Strathclyde, to Malcolm, to be held as a fief². In this reign robbery was punished with death. Edred was the brother of Edmund, and was elected to the throne by the Witenagemote, because the sons of the late King were still infants. His chief advisers were Turltyel, the chancellor (a grandson of Alfred the Great), and Dunstan. In this reign the kingdom of Northumbria was reduced to an earldom.

3. Dunstan.—This great man was born in the hamlet of Glastonbury, early in the tenth century. He had been taught music and the literature of the time by the wandering scholars of Ireland, and he never went on a journey without his harp in his hand. He became a monk, and—himself an accomplished artist—soon collected round him a large number of pupils, who studied under his kindly care the arts of writing, illuminating,³ designing, and harping. King Edmund had made him Abbot of Glastonbury. And now his first and greatest

¹ This word is here used in its first or primary sense of *doer of great deeds*.

² That is, on condition of service in war.

³ This was the art of painting small pretty pictures in books. The beginning, or initial letter was generally "illuminated" in bright colours on a gold ground.

ambition was to reform the Church. In the unsettled condition of the country produced by the Danish wars, a lax state of discipline and many abuses had crept gradually into the monasteries¹. The secular clergy, too,—that is, the parish priests and those who were not monks,—were in many instances not only ignorant, but vicious. Dunstan and his followers, moreover, had always believed in the maxim of the Western Church, that priests ought not to be married, and this broke up the Church into two bitterly hostile parties. But he was also an enthusiast in education, and it was a painful reflection, which was always gnawing at his mind, that, since King Alfred died, not a single new book or new translation had been written. He and his friends expelled the secular canons from the cathedrals, established the Benedictine order of monks, founded forty new abbeys, and established good schools in connection with them.

4. **Edwy**—Edwy the Fair, the eldest son of Edmund, was chosen king by the Witenagemote, on the death of Edred in 955. He had married a lady called Elgiva—a lady who was said by the monks' party to be related to him within the forbidden degrees of marriage. Hence Edwy very naturally took the side of the seculars against the monks, and found himself in opposition to Dunstan. The country, therefore, began to be neglected in the midst of this violent personal quarrel, and in 957 all England north of the Thames revolted from Edwy and chose his brother Edgar as their king. Edwy died soon after, in 959.

5. **Edgar the Peaceful**—Edgar, on his accession to the throne, recalled Dunstan, made him Bishop of London, and appointed him as his chief adviser. He afterwards made Dunstan Archbishop of Canterbury. Under these two men, the kingdom had peace both within and without. A strong fleet constantly cruised along the coast, and shortly after his coronation, Edgar paid a visit to Chester and the North, and his boat was rowed upon the river Dee by eight vassal kings. A wise measure of his killed out the wolves which infested Wales and the borderland. Instead of tribute, he exacted from the Welsh princes a tale² of three hundred wolves' heads every year, and it is said that by the fourth year not another wolf could anywhere

¹ Building where monks live. A place where nuns live is called a *nunnery*.

² Old English word for *number*. It comes from *tell* (to count or recount) and is connected with *toll* *tally* *teller* etc. Compare Exodus v. 8. *tale of bricks*."

he found Edgar died in 975, and left behind him two sons, Edward and Ethelred, the sons of different mothers

(i) **Edwy (955) and Edgar (959)** On the revolt of the Mercians and Northumbrians, Edwy had only Wessex left to him but Edgar united the whole kingdom under his rule At his coronation, Edgar promised three things (1) To secure peace to the Church, (2) to keep down robbery, and (3) To be just "in all dooms" In this reign there was peace—no war either within or without Edgar kept up a powerful fleet, and he commuted the annual tribute of the Welsh into the yearly payment of three hundred wolves' heads

(ii) These eight vassal kings were Five Welsh kings, Kenneth, king of Scots, the Under king of Cumberland, and the Danish king of the Southern Isles (Sodreyar)

(iii) Edgar gave to Kenneth III, king of Scots, the Lothians—which were called "Saxony" by the Celts—to govern, and to be held by him on feudal tenure

✓ **6 Edward the Martyr**—Edgar was succeeded by Edward, a boy of twelve, the son of his first wife This boy was one day out hunting in the country which lies round Corfe Castle, or, as it was then called, Corfe's Gate He was riding slowly home, tired and thirsty, when he called at the castle, where his stepmother Elfrida was living He asked for a cup of wine His stepmother brought it, and while he was drinking, one of her attendants crept behind and stabbed him in the back. He put spurs to his horse and galloped off, but, fainting for loss of blood, he fell from his saddle, and with one foot in the stirrup, was dragged along by his horse until he died His little half-brother Ethelred, a boy of ten, burst into tears when he heard of Edward's death, and was beaten about the head by his mother with such persistence that his life was for some time in danger

7 Ethelrede Unrede¹—This luckless boy ascended the throne at the age of ten, in the year 979, and before he was yet in his teens, the Danes had recommenced their landings and plunderings and burnings Dunstan died in 988, and the care of this great country was left to a weak and cowardly lad and a few of his unworthy favourites This "worthless waverer" and his friends could devise no better plan of meeting the Danes than giving them money to go

¹ This word means *planless* It is a kind of pun upon his name which, in Old English was written *Ethelrede* was pronounced *Ethelready* and meant *noble* or *high in counsel* or *plan* But *Unrede* means *without plan*. Thus *Ethelready Unready* would be the sound it would make to the ears of his subjects *Noble plan no plan* might be a modern equivalent Richard II had the same unenviable distinction being called, alliteratively, Richard the Redless

away¹ Of course they came back again and again, always for more. To pay this money, heavy taxes were laid upon the people, and these taxes were called *Dane-money* or *Dane gelt* At last the kingdom had shrunk to the two provinces of Wessex and Kent, and even in Wessex a large colony of Danes had settled Peace was made with them, but the peace was hollow and treacherous

8 The Massacre of the Danes—Ethelred's next plan was to massacre the Danes in Wessex. Accordingly, on St Brice's Day, in 1002, the West Saxons rose on a private signal from the King, and put to death every Danish man, woman, and child Among the murdered victims was Gunhilda, the sister of the Danish king Sweyn He, upon the news of this treacherous butchery, swore to drive the witless king—the *planless* ruler—out of his kingdom For four years he marched across Wessex in every direction, burning and slaying as he went—his path before him marked by blazing farm and burning town, and behind by blackened homesteads and slaughtered men He withdrew for a bribe at last, but returned not long after Northumbria and Mercia joined him in his attack upon Wessex, Ethelred fled to Normandy, and, in spite of the heroic resistance of London, which beat off the Norsemen four times, the whole country at last submitted to Sweyn

Massacre
of the
Danes
1002

Ethelred II. (Unrede) (979)—In 981 the Danes, under Olave (Anlaf) of Norway and Sweyn (Sweyn) of Denmark, invaded England. Wulfstan, an English bishop, says "We are always paying our enemies tribute, and they ravage us daily They spoil, burn, plunder, and carry off our goods to their ships Such is their boldness, that one of them will put ten of our men to flight Two or three will drive a band of captive Christians through the whole country from sea to sea In the massacre of the Danes on St Brice's Day, 13th November 1002, English women (who had married Danes), and even children and infants, were killed

✓✓ 9 Sweyn and Edmund Ironside—Sweyn was acknowledged King of all England in 1013, but he died in the following year His son Knut (or, in its Latin form, *Canutus*) succeeded him, but had to fight for his realm with Edmund, the son of Ethelred. Edmund was a brave and tenacious warrior, and his courage and tenacity gained

¹ The tax called *Dane-gelt* (*Dane-money*) amounted to 12d. a year on each hide of land (a hide was 120 acres) It was therefore the first direct land tax. In 991 10 000 lbs of silver was raised as *Dane gelt* In 994 16 000 lbs in 1001 24 000 lbs in 1007 30 000 lbs and in 1010 48 000 lbs. Silver in those days had probably fifty times the purchasing power that it now has

for him the title of *Ironside*. After six pitched battles, it was agreed to divide the kingdom, and the share of Edmund was *Wessex, East Anglia, Essex, and London*. On the 30th of November 1016 Edmund died, after reigning only seven months, and Canute now became ruler of all England.

Edmund II. (*Ironside*) (1016) — This prince reigned only seven months, during which he fought nine battles. By the advice of the Witan, he shared England with Canute, he had Wessex, etc., and Canute Mercia and the North.

SHORT CHRONOLOGY OF ENGLISH PERIOD III.

1. Athelstan "the Steadfast" succeeds,	925
He gains the victory of Brunanburgh,	937
2. Edmund succeeds,	940
Dunstan, Abbot of Glastouhury,	943
3. Eadred succeeds,	947
4. Edwy succeeds,	955
Dunstan banished,	956
5. Edgar succeeds,	958
Dunstan, Archbishop of Canterbury,	961
6. Eadward the Martyr succeeds,	975
7. Ethelred the Unready succeeds,	979
(a) Invasion of the Danes under Swegen (Sweyn),	991
(b) Massacre of the Danes,	1002
(c) Swegen master of all England,	1013
(d) Ethelred flees to Normandy,	1014
8. Edmund Ironside succeeds and dies,	1016

CHAPTER V

THE DANISH KINGS

1 Canute, 1017-1035 —Canute, the Dane, was now King of all England. His ambition was to unite Denmark, Norway, Sweden and England under his own rule, and for this purpose he did all he could to make the English his friends. He had the eye to see that what the country wanted was justice and good government, and he was fair-minded enough to give equal measure to conqueror and conquered—to Dane and to Englishmen. He gathered round him a bodyguard of *house carls*—paid soldiers, which was the nucleus of a standing army. He erected four great earldoms or governments,—Mercia, East Anglia, Wessex, and Northumberland ¹

2 Canute and Religion.—He became also the fast friend of the Church. He gave costly gifts to the religious houses, made the road to Rome safe for English pilgrims, and protected English bishops against the exacting claims of the Popes. There is an old ballad which tells of his affection for religious observances —

“Merrily sang the monks of Ely
As Onut the King was passing by
‘Row, boatmen, nearer, said the King,
‘And let us hear these sweet monks sing’”

He himself made a pilgrimage to Rome, and from there he wrote a letter to the English people, full of noble feeling and justness of thought. “I have vowed to God,” he says, “to govern my kingdoms with equity, and to act justly in all things.” And he adds, “I have no need that money be heaped together for me by unjust demands.” The story of how he rebuked his courtiers agrees with the religious character of the later part of his life.

¹ Northumberland now extended only from the Humber to the Tweed, Northern Northumberland (then called *Lothian*) was held by the king of Scots and thus grew gradually to be a part of Scotland.

His courtiers vied with each other in flattering him in the highest degree as the greatest of kings and the most powerful of lords,—that the powers of earth, sea, and sky were at his feet, and that he had but to speak to be obeyed. “Place my throne upon the sea shore,” he said. Then he spoke in a loud voice, and bade the waves retire and know their supreme master, but the tide kept rolling in, and dashed upon his feet and royal robes. Then said Canute, turning to his flatterers: “Empty and worthless is the power of kings: there is but one King, He whom heaven and earth and sea obey, the King of kings and Lord of lords.” And, taking his crown from his head, he sent it to the cathedral at Winchester, where it was placed upon the crown of thorns, in tribute and in token of submissive loyalty to his Maker, and he never wore it any more.

3 England at peace—The greatest gift of Canute to the people of England was the gift of peace. With his reign began a peace in the island which was unbroken for nearly two hundred years. With two exceptions—the short, quick struggle of the Norman Conquest, and the war under Stephen—England enjoyed unbroken repose. Of no other kingdom in Europe could this be said. Canute died in his fortieth year, and left Norway to Sweyn, Denmark to Hardicanute, and England to Harold Harefoot or Harold I.

Canute (1016-1035)—He was only twenty when the Witan elected him as king. He married Emma, the widow of Ethelred II. By the aid of English troops, under the command of Earl Godwin, he conquered Sweden (Godwin obtained from him in marriage Gytha, the sister of Ulf Jarl, his brother-in-law). Canute was thus one of the most powerful sovereigns in Europe—King of England, Denmark, Norway, and Sweden. He constructed the road or causeway called the “King’s Delf,” between Peterborough and Ramsey. The children of Edmund Ironside were sent to Hungary. Here Edward, the eldest son, commonly called “Edward the Outlaw,” married a daughter of the Emperor Henry II. The children of this marriage were Edgar Atheling and two daughters, one of whom, Margaret, became the wife of Malcolm III of Scotland. A daughter of hers, Matilda, married Henry I of England.

4. Harold I and Hardicanute—During the reign of Harold I (1035-1040), Alfred, the son of King Æthelred and the brother of Ironside, landed in the island from Normandy, and attacked the Danish troops. He was completely defeated, every tenth man was put to death, and the rest sold into slavery. He himself had his eyes torn out, and was cast forth to die. On the death of Harold, Hardicanute (1040-1042) was elected king by the Great Council of the Wise. He was even more savage than his brother. He had the dead body of Harold dug up and thrown into a morass. The London Danes piously carried the corpse to their own burying-ground, and the name of the church in the Strand—*St Clement Danes*—records

the fact to the present day Hardicanute died "as he stood at his drink in the house of Osgood Clapa,¹ at Lambeth" And so ended the rule of Danish kings in England.

✓ (i) Harold I. (Harefoot) (935-1040) He was the son of Canute by his first wife, Ælfgifu, and he received his surname of *Harefoot* from his swift running This succession was contrary to the promise made by Canute to the English, that his sons by Emma only should succeed him The Archbishop of Canterbury refused to crown him, but, placing the crown on the altar, he said, "I will neither give it thee, nor withhold thee from taking it, neither will I bless thee, nor shall any bishop hallow thee upon this throne of England"

✓ (ii) Hardicanute (1040-1042) He was the son of Emma, and, on his landing from Denmark, he was elected king at once and without opposition In this reign Godwin and his sons ruled over all the south of England, from Norfolk to Cornwall

✓✓ 5 Scotland.—The first sign of a feudal connection between England and Scotland is to be found in the year 945, when Edmund, king of Wessex, conquered Cumberland, and gave it to Malcolm I, king of Scots, to be held by him on military tenure—that is, on condition of Malcolm's giving aid to Edmund in war—The next step in this connection occurs in 972, when Edgar, "King of all the English," grants Lothian to Kenneth III, king of Scots, to be held by Kenneth as "the man" of Edgar—In 1018 we find Malcolm II fighting with the Northumbrians, and, by his victory at Carham, gaining the Tweed as the southern boundary of Scotland.—It is only at this point that the history of Scotland becomes at all clear The grandson of Malcolm II, Duncan I, began to reign in 1034. He was slain in battle by Macbeth, the Mormior of Ross and Moray, whose territories he had invaded. Macbeth seized the throne in 1040 and reigned till 1057—a period of seventeen years But, in the year 1054, Duncan's son Malcolm, who had obtained the aid of his uncle Siward, Earl of Northumbria, invaded Scotland and fought a battle with Macbeth near Dunsinane The result of the battle is not known. Macbeth had no children, and he was succeeded by Malcolm III, called also Canmore (or Big-head)

(i) Shakespeare has made a very different story out of the one simple fact that Macbeth usurped the throne His wife's name was Gruach They had a peaceful and prosperous reign They greatly helped the Church in Scotland, sent contributions to the Pope, and Macbeth was indeed the first King of Scots who ever stood in direct communication with Rome

(ii) Duncan I married a sister of the Danish Siward, Earl of Northumbria.

¹ From the name *Clapa* or *Clapha* comes *Clapham* now a suburb of London

PLAN OF DATES

THE FIRST TEN CENTURIES

110	120 121 Hadrian builds a wall between the Tyne and the Solway Firth.	130	210 211 Severus dies at York (Eboracum)
140 Emperor builds of Antoninus Pictavia line of	150	160	240
170	180 184 Caledonians cross the Wall of Antoninus Marcellus Roman Gover- nor repulses them.	190	270 Constantine Roman Governor
400			
410 Sacked by the Goths) Emperor frees Britain from allegiance	420 426 All Roman troops withdrawn from Britain	430	510
440 "Groans of the Britons" Invited by Vort- igern to fight against the beginning of Kingdom of Kent.	450	460	540 547 Kingdom of North umbria begun
470 found the King- dom of Sussex.	480	490 493 Ceolric founds the Kingdom of Wessex.	570 Uffa founds the Kingdom of East Anglia.
700			
710	720	730 731 Death of the Vener- able Bede.	810
740	750 757 Offa King of Mercia Supremacy of Mercia.	760	840

59	60	70	80	90
59 of Caractacus. Suetonius Roman Governor	61 Suetonius conquers the Druids of Mona. Boadicea defeated	78 Agricola Roman Governor He completes the con- quest of Britain	81 Agricola reaches the Tyne 83 He builds forts from Forth to Clyde. Defeat of Galgacus.	

alongside of Hadrian's Wall		300 335 St. Alban the first Christian martyr in Britain 336 Constantine proclaimed Roman Emperor in Britain		
	230	310	320	330
	260	340	350	360 Picts and Scots (Irish tribe) invade S Britain
ated axon	290	370	380	390

		600		
Eng re sex.	530	610 617 Edwin, king of North umbria, becomes Bret- wilda of all England except Kent.	620 627 Edwin baptized by Paulinus, who becomes first Archbishop of York	630 633 Battle of Hatfield which Edwin is killed by Penda king of Mer.
	560	640	650	660
the dia.	590 597 Ethelbert, king of Kent converted by Augustine who be- comes first Archbishop of Canterbury	670	680 685 King of Northumbria defeated and killed by the Picts The supremacy of Northumbria comes to an end 688 Ine, king of Wessex, pub- lishes his laws	690

Wessex.		900 901 EDWARD THE ELDER 907 Edward's sister Etheldreda, the "I of the Mercians" fortifies Chester		
s the lune s sub- sex.	830 836 Battle of Hengist Down. 839 Death of Egbert ETHELWOLF	910 Valley of the Seine seized by Rollo the Northman Then called Normandy 918 Mercia is annexed to Wessex	920 925 Death of Edward the Elder ATHELSTAN 925 Corn Welsh Scots South Welsh and Northumbrians swear allegiance to him	930 937 Battle of Brun- burgh.
e North ney. half. and I	860 865 The Northmen first bought off in Kent	940 EDMUND 945 Hoglves Cumberland to Malcolm king of Scots 946 EDRED Rise of Dunstan	950 955 EDWY 956 Banishment of Dun- stan 959 EDGAR 'King of All the English' Dunstan recalled	960 Dunstan Archbishop Canterbury and P Minister
Laws	890 897 Alfred builds a new fleet	970 972 Edgar grants Lothian to Kenneth, king of Scots 975 EDWARD "the Martyr"	980 980 Danish Invasions again 988 Death of Dunstan.	990 991 Battle of Maldon First payment of Dan 994 Swegen and Anlaf reach the South of Eng

CHAPTER VI.

THE CONFESSOR AND THE GODWINS

Edward the Confessor (1042-1066) He was the second son of Æthelred II and Emma, and he thus restored the Saxon line (His eldest brother, Alfred, had been murdered at Guildford by Earl Godwin) But this king married Edith, "the fair rose," Godwin's daughter His rule was so just that the promise to observe "the laws of the good King Edward," was added to the coronation oath of the kings of England He was the first prince who used a seal—a custom borrowed by him from the Frankish kings

1. Edward the Confessor, 1042-1066—The old English line of Cerdic was restored by the election of Edward,¹ the second son of Æthelred and Emma Edward was foreign in his habits and manners, in his ways of thinking, in his feelings, and in his language He spoke the language called Norman-French, and introduced this language into his court But his policy and inclinations had a strong opponent in Godwin, the great and powerful Earl of Wessex Earl Godwin had married Gytha, sister of Ulf, the brother-in-law of Canute There were then two parties in England,—the foreign or king's party, and the English or native party, and Godwin was the head of the English party In time Godwin gained the upper hand, and at length concentrated within his own family all the power of the kingdom Besides, he had induced Edward to marry his daughter Edith

2 Exile of Godwin, 1051—Eustace, Count of Boulogne, who had married the King's sister, on his way back from a visit to his brother-in-law, stopped at Dover and demanded food and quarters for his train A quarrel arose between the men of Boulogne and the men of Dover, and blood was shed and lives were lost on both sides King Edward, in a terrible rage, ordered Godwin to go down and punish the men of

¹ *Edward means oath keeper*

Dover, who belonged to his earldom.¹ But Godwin refused, and demanded a fair trial for the Kentish men. The trial was granted, but Earl Godwin found himself arraigned before the Witan along with his own people as a criminal at the bar. He at once called his men together and marched upon Gloucester, but the country did not support him, and he had to retire into Flanders. In less than a year, however, the nation came to see that Godwin was the one statesman in the country who stood between England and the yoke of foreigners, and, on the appearance of his fleet in the Thames, the foreign party fell to pieces. The Norman bishops and knights fled across the sea, and Godwin's power was greater than ever it had been before. But he died in the year after, 1052.

✓ 3 Earl Harold as Prime Minister—On the death of his father, Earl Harold succeeded to all his power, (power now unhampered by the difficulties with which his father had struggled so long,) and for twelve years he was the real ruler of the kingdom. Under his management the country grew in wealth, prosperity, and happiness,—happiness based upon just laws and just decisions. The only people in the island who gave any trouble were the Welsh, and after several victories over them, he reduced them to quietness and subjection. King Edward died in 1066, just after he had completed the building of a cathedral on an island in the Thames. This cathedral was called the West Minster.² King Edward had spent his time chiefly at his prayers, in building churches, and in collecting relics, and the work of managing and ruling the country had been done for him by Earls Godwin and Harold. On his deathbed he is said to have named Harold as his successor.

✓ 4. The House of Godwin Harold as King, Jan 5—Oct 14, 1066—Harold II was elected³ king by the Witan on the very day King Edward died, and on the following morning, the dead king was buried and the new king crowned in a chapel of the West Minster. But Harold was not destined to gain quiet possession of a

¹ He was Earl of Kent as well as of Wessex. A part of the land which formed his estates was gradually encroached on by the sea, and the bank off Parnigate is hence known by the name of *Godwin or Goodwin Sands*.

² The present cathedral was built by Henry III. and Edward I.

³ It ought to be remembered that the Witan—wote had always held the right to choose the king but they generally chose him out of the royal family. Harold was the first man not of royal blood ever chosen.

throne the work of which he had done—and done well—for the last twelve years. He had to reckon with the most terrible and determined foe in Europe. William, the great Duke of Normandy, was the man of all Europe who, in addition to a will which no difficulties could daunt, had the craftiest and most patient mind, and the largest aims in statesmanship. Descended from the fierce Scandinavian pirates, a giant in height, of enormous strength, savage in manners, furious in anger, and remorseless in revenge, he was a strong ruler by his own personal strength and weight, as well as by descent. "No knight under heaven was William's fear, no man could bend his bow." William was hunting when the news came of Harold's accession. He returned to his palace speechless with rage. For Edward had promised to Duke William the succession,—or at least the right first to present himself for election to the Wise Men, and Harold, when wrecked on the coast of Normandy, had been forced, as the price of his ransom, to swear upon the bones of a saint to support the claim of the Duke to the throne of England.

5 Preparations for Invasion—Duke William lost no time. He sent to Rome for the blessing of the Pope, and Alexander II¹ presented him with a consecrated² banner, and declared him the lawful claimant. He had to treat with his quarrelsome barons, to send all over France for men and money, to cut down trees and build vessels, and to keep foreign powers from intermeddling with his designs. At last he was ready, and he set sail from St Valery³-sur-Somme on the 27th of September



6 Invasion of Harold Hardrada (But the subjugation of England was due not so much to the Normans, as to an invasion from the north which did more than half their work for them.) Harold Hardrada (that is, *Stern-in-Counsel*), king of the Norwegians, had

¹ This was done by the influence of the great Hildebrand,—then only an archdeacon, but afterwards Pope Gregory VII,—who saw in this an opportunity of bringing the Church of England under Rome.

² Blessed by the Pope.

³ On the river Somme near Boulogne.

been induced by Harold's own brother Tostig to attack England. Tostig had been deposed and outlawed for his cruel and tyrannical government of Northumberland. The Norwegian host landed on the coast of Yorkshire. Harold marched day and night along the Roman road from London to York, and on the 25th of September he met the enemy at Stamford Bridge. He utterly overthrew them, and Harold Hardrada and Tostig were among the slain. But three days after, William of Normandy had landed in Sussex.

7 The Battle of Senlac or Hastings—King Harold held a great feast at York in honour of this victory, but, in the middle of the feast, a thane of Sussex appeared with the terrible news that sixty thousand Normans had landed at Pevensey,¹ and were laying waste the south coast. Harold had now to march back with all speed from York to Hastings, and to send messages to all parts of England for men to help him. They came in thousands from every county, except from the earldoms of Northumberland and Mercia, where Edwin and Morcar ruled. Harold marched his army to within a few miles of Hastings, and took up a very strong position on a low spur of the Sussex downs. This low hill runs into the surrounding plain, not far from the little town now called *Battle*. Harold dug a trench round the top of it, placing the dug-out earth next his men, and this mound of earth he stuck full of thick posts or stakes. Thus a strong stockade or palisade was raised round the plateau on the top of the hill. The Normans took up their position at a place called Telham.

8 October the Fourteenth, 1066—The task before the Normans was to take this hill. The archers were to let fly their arrows among the English, the heavy-armed foot were to march up the slope and cut down the stockade, and then the Norman horsemen were to pour in through the gap. The English fought, as always, on foot, the Norman knights on horseback. King Harold stood between the Golden Dragon of Wessex and his own royal standard, with his brothers Gyrth and Leofwine on either hand. Duke William rode in the centre of his army with his two half-brothers, Odo and Robert. The battle was begun by a minstrel-knight called Taillefer,² who

¹ About fifteen miles from Hastings

² The word means literally *cut iron*, that is *sword smith*. It appears in modern English as the proper name *Telfer*.

cantered out in front, chanting a war-song, v hurling his sword into the air, and catching it again by the heavy hilt. He was soon cut down, and the battle had now fairly begun. Amid shouts from the Normans of "God us aid" ¹ and from the English of "God Almighty" and "Holy Cross" the Norman foot and the Norman knights charged up the hill, and tried again and again to break down the barricade. Again and again they were beaten back, with thrusts from javelins and heavy blows from the two-handed battle-axes of the English. Harold himself cut down horse and rider at a single blow. A cry ran through the Norman ranks that Duke William was killed. In a transport of rage he tore the helmet off his head, and shouted in a voice of thunder, "I live, I live, and by God's help I will yet win the day!" Mad with anger, he spurred straight at the royal standard, broke his way right through to Harold, and, though unhorsed, struck down with his heavy mace the two brothers of the King. Again the tide of battle swayed to and fro

9 The Stratagem of William.—At last Duke William bethought him of a stratagem. He ordered his men to turn and flee, and the English, thinking that the day was theirs, poured in one unbroken stream from their stronghold on the hill, and followed hard after the fugitives. Suddenly the Duke gave the signal to face about, the broken line of the English was easily cut to pieces, and with one strong rush the Normans made themselves masters of the central table-land. This was at three o'clock. But the kingdom was not yet won or lost. At six, the house-carls of Harold stood steadily and stubbornly at bay round their King and his standard, and charge after charge of the Norman knights was beaten back. The Duke now brought up his archers, and ordered them to shoot up into the air, "that the arrows might fall like bolts from heaven." This ended the battle. The King fell, pierced through the eye with a long Norman shaft, and four knights rushed in and finished him. So perished the last English king of the English, and in this way did Duke William win the battle of Hastings.

Harold II. (1066) He was the second son of Earl Godwin. The heir to the throne, so far as descent could constitute a claim, was Edgar the Atheling, a grand son of Edmund Ironside, whose father had been recalled from Hungary by the Con-

¹ In Norman French *Dieu nous aide!*

fessor But Harold had made himself very popular by his conquest of the Welsh, and by his just dealings with Northumbria, when he took this great earldom away from his own brother, Tostig, who had ruled harshly and tyrannically, and given it to Morcar. The Witan therefore passed over Edgar, who was a mere boy

10 The Sequel.—William, a few days after, marched through Canterbury upon London. The Witan, upon the news of Harold's death, chose Edgar the Atheling, a grandson of Edmund Ironside, as the King of England. He was accepted by the two great Earls Edwin and Morcar, but a skilful movement of the Duke's compelled these men to retreat to their earldoms, and London opened its gates to William the Conqueror. On Christmas Day 1066 he received the crown from the hands of the Archbishop Aldred, of York, amidst shouts of approval from his English subjects. William was now King of England, but there was no change in law, custom, or constitution. He tried to learn English, that he might in person administer justice to his subjects, but he found the harsh, guttural tongue—as it then was—too difficult and too ungenial for a rough, unlettered soldier of forty. Three months after the Battle of Senlac, thinking the kingdom and the people in a state of complete tranquillity, William set out for his own home, and left England in charge of his brother Odo, the Bishop of Bayeux.¹

SHORT CHRONOLOGY OF ENGLISH PERIOD IV

(ENGLAND UNDER FOREIGN KINGS 1017-1066)

1. Canute king,	1017
(a) Godwin, Earl of Wessex,	1020
(b) William of Normandy born,	1027
(c) Canute dies,	1035
2. Harold and Hardicanute divide England,	1035
(a) Harold dies	1040
(b) Hardicanute dies,	1042
3. Edward the Confessor succeeds	1042
(a) Godwin banished,	1051
(b) William of Normandy visits England,	1052
(c) Harold Earl of Wessex,	1053
4. Harold king,	1066
(a) Victory of Stamford Bridge, September,	1066
(b) Defeat at Senlac, October 14th,	1066
5. William of Normandy king,	1066

¹ A town in Normandy well known for the Bayeux tapestry—a series of pictures of the battles and other events of Duke William's invasion worked in needlework, by his wife Matilda and her ladies

ENGLAND IN SAXON TIMES

1 **The Land.**—The surface of England looks, in this nineteenth century, like one great well-tended and carefully cultivated garden. But, a thousand years ago, it was something very different. It was a wild country, with dense forests, wide moors, vast fens, swamps and marshes, and the waste land was the rule, the cultivated land the small and rare exception. The roads were footpaths or bridle-paths and the only roads worthy of the name were those that had been constructed by the Romans. In the ninth century, there were not five acres in every hundred under cultivation, in the nineteenth, eighty in every hundred is cultivated and yields excellent crops.

CONTRAST

NINTH CENTURY		NINETEENTH CENTURY	
Waste land,	80 per cent	Waste land,	20 per cent.
Total cultivable area,	5,000,000 acres	Total cultivable area,	25,000,000 acres

(i) "An enormous amount of the country still remained overgrown with wild forest. The whole weald of Kent and Sussex, the great tract of Selwood in Wessex, the larger part of Warwickshire, the entire Peakland, the central dividing range between the two seas from Yorkshire to the Forth, and other wide regions elsewhere, were covered with primeval woodlands. The bear still lurked in the remotest thickets, packs of wolves still issued forth at night to ravage the herdsman's folds, wild boars wallowed in the fens or munched acorns under the oakwoods, deer ranged over all the heathy tracts throughout the whole island, and the wild white cattle, now confined to Chillingham Park, roamed in many spots from north to south. Hence hunting was the chief pastime of the princes and ealdormen when they were not engaged in war with one another or with the Welsh. Game, bear flesh, and venison formed an important portion of diet throughout the whole Early English period, up to the Norman conquest, and long after."—GRANT ALLEN

(ii) The productive area of England in the present century amounts to 80 per cent of the whole, of Wales, to 60 per cent, of Ireland, to 71 per cent, and of Scotland, to only 28.8 per cent.

(iii) Less barley and oats is now grown in Great Britain, and a much greater breadth of land lies in permanent pasture.

2 **Enclosures.**—As land was won from the waste, and brought under cultivation, it was enclosed by a wall, a hedge, or a fence. The suffixes of names which we find everywhere—such as *ton, ham, worth, stoke, fold, burgh, bury*—all convey the notion of enclosure and fencing-in. These enclosures still exist in our country, and the contrast of England parcelled out into little fields, parks, crofts, and gardens is very great when compared with the surface of France, which consists of wide plains, where there is not a wall or hedge or fence to be seen.

(i) "England is pre eminently the land of hedges and enclosures On a visit to the Continent almost the first thing the tourist notices is the absence of the hedge rows of England. —ISAAC TAYLOR.

(ii) *Ton* (like German *Zaun*) meant originally a hedge, or a place surrounded by a hedge In Scotland, the farm steading is still called the *town* "In some parts of England the rickyard is still called the *barton*—that is, the enclosure for the *beare* or crop which the land bears We have *ton* in *Appleton*, *Workington*, *Southampton*, etc.

(iii) *Ham* is another form of the word *home*, we find it in *Ham*, *Nottingham*, etc.

(iv) *Worth* means a place *walled* or protected It is found in *Kenilworth*, *Tamworth*, *Bosworth*, *Wandsworth*, etc.

(v) *Stoke* means a place *stockaded*—or surrounded by *stakes*, *stocks*, or *piles* This suffix is found in *Stoke*, *Basingstoke*, etc A softened form is *Stow* and the form *stol* is also found, as in *Bristol* which was formerly *Brigstow* = the place of the bridge

(vi) *Fold* was a place fenced in by *felled* trees

(vii) *Burgh* (the southern and western form is *bury*) comes from the Anglo-Saxon verb *beorgan*, to hide. *Burgh* is the Anglian form *bury* the Saxon.

3 Tenure of Land.—The English people were a nation of yeomen dwelling on their own land—of franklins or freeholders Kinsmen of the same family lived in villages for mutual support and protection, and each village was called by the family name—*Billingham* being the home of the *Billings*, *Woolsingham*, of the *Woolsings*, and so on. The land held by these villages was of two kinds—tilled land and pasture The arable land was divided every year, so that each family might take its turn. The pasture-land was held in common for the use of the oxen and horses of the village community The business of the village was transacted at the village moot or meeting of the heads of families, which took place under some great tree, and the chief officer of the village, who was always elective—as is to-day the case in Switzerland, was the *village-reeve*

(i) *Folkland* was the land held in common by the nation. Parts of it could be given to private persons by the King, but only with the consent of the *Witan*

(ii) *Bocland* was land held by *boc* (book) or charter When a piece of folkland was given to a thane or earl or private person by the King, it became *bocland*—as the right to it was conferred by *boc* or charter

4 The Hundred.—A number of villages—varying from 100 to 120—were grouped into one corporate body, which was called a hundred. Each household in this body sent up at least one armed man to the militia or *fyrd* of the district—The meeting of the hundred was called the *hundred-moot*, it met four times a year, all disputes were settled in it and all criminal cases tried. The chairman of the *hundred-moot* was called the *hundred-man* or *hundred-elder*

(i) *Wapentake* (=taking of weapons for inspection or review by the leader) is the equivalent for *hundred* in the Anglian districts, *Yorkshire*, *Lancashire*, etc It is a Danish name

(ii) The term *hundred* very soon became the mere name of a division "What was once a number is now a name only"

5 The Larger Units—The meeting of the whole tribe or small nation was called the **Folk-moot**. It was held twice a year, and was presided over by the **King**. This Moot made laws, decided on war or peace, elected or deposed their king, and settled the larger disputes between villages or hundreds. Every point was settled by the voice or by the vote of the freeholders, all of whom could attend this parliament of their nation.—When the smaller kingdoms were subdued and united into one larger kingdom, the meeting of the freeholders of the larger kingdom became to a large extent representative, and therefore only the greatest men came together, who were called the **Wise Men** or **Witan**. This meeting was called the **Wise Men Moot** or the **Witenagemote**.

6 The Witenagemote—The Witenagemote, or Parliament of Saxon England, was formed of the nobles and the higher clergy, and it dealt with matters which concerned the whole nation. It was also called the **Meyl Gemot** or "Great Moot". It met regularly at Easter, Whitsuntide, and Christmas, but it might also be summoned at other times for special reasons. Its most important right and prerogative was the power of electing a king.

Under the Witenagemote, the Folk moot might remain as the assembly and chief court for the smaller kingdoms.

7 King, Ealdormen, and Thanes—The **King** was the president of the Folk-moot, the leader of the nation in war, and, when he was a **Head-King**, with under-kings beneath him, he was the president of the Witenagemote. His wife was called the **Queen**, and, in some circumstances, the **Lady of the people**. Next to the King came the **Ealdormen**. They were the rulers of shires, the leaders in battle of the military force of their own division, and they sat along with the bishop and the sheriff in the folk-moot. They received one-third of all the profits which resulted from fines, rents, and other payments due in the shire.—Inferior both in rank and property to the Ealdormen were the **Thegns** (or **Thanes**), who were proprietors of at least five hides of land.

(i) **Cyning** (=son of the Kin) is a word which simply means *Son of the Race*. In the earliest times, when land was held in common, it did not mean King of the country, but King or kinsman (*the Kinsman par excellence*) of the People. The revival of this feeling in later times is shown in such titles as "King of the Belgians," "Emperor of the French," "German Emperor," etc etc.

(ii) The **King's Thegn** was superior to the ordinary territorial thegn.

(iii) When a thegn became possessed of 40 hides of land, he was entitled to the **wergild** and rank of an earl.

8 The People—There were three classes among the people: **Eorls**, **Ceorls**, and **Theows**, or "gentle," "simple," and slaves. The two first of these classes were freemen, the last were serfs. There

were four kinds of theows those born in slavery—the born-slaves, those taken captive in war—who were often Britons, those who had sold themselves to escape starvation and death, or those who had been sold because they could not pay their debts or the fines they had incurred. Each freeman had a “man-price” or *wer-gild*, a certain sum which had to be paid by the murderer either to his kinsmen or gild-brethren. The theow had no legal rights, and no *wer-gild* as such, but the person who killed him had to make good the value of him to his master. The *wer* of a ceorl was 200 shillings, the *wer* of an ordinary thane, 600, the *wer* of a King’s thane, 1200 shillings. The *wer* of an ealdorman was double that of a King’s thane, while the *wer* of the King was 7200 shillings, or three times that of an ealdorman. Most freemen lived on their own land, but a landless freeman became a smith or a carpenter, a fisherman, a merchant, or an agricultural labourer.

(i) *Eorl* meant simply “a man of noble blood.” In the time of Ethelred, it was spelt and pronounced *earl* (and confused to some extent with the Danish *jarl*). It superseded the title of *ealdorman*.

(ii) *Wer* means *man* and we find it in the genitive case in *Cant wara byrig*=the borough of the men of Kent (Canterbury).

9 Law and Justice—Courts of justice were held in the open air, and generally on rising ground where all who attended could hear what was said. A man accused of crime could clear himself in one of two ways by compurgation, or by ordeal. By the first method, the accused brought a number of persons called “compurgators,” who either bore witness to his general good character, or swore to his innocence of the particular crime, or both. The number of compurgators varied with the seriousness of the offence charged, and also with the rank of the accuser and accused. The ordeal was an ordeal by fire or by water. By the first, the accused person carried a piece of red-hot iron three steps, and then threw it down, by the second, he drew a piece of iron or stone out of a pot of boiling water. If, after the expiry of seven days, the hand or arm was perfectly well, the accused was held to be innocent. Minor offences were punished by fines, graver offences, by outlawry.

(i) An outlaw was said to “bear a wolf’s head,” and could therefore be lawfully slain, like a wolf, by any one who met him.

(ii) Trial by ordeal was abolished in the end of the twelfth century.

10 Houses, Food, etc—In the earliest times, a Saxon house was a mud-hut, thatched with straw or twigs, with a hole in the roof to let out the smoke, and holes in the walls to let in the light. Later, Saxon or English houses were built of timber, and were either thatched or tiled. The two chief rooms were the hall and bower.

The hall was the general living and eating room, the bower was the room for the women and children. The whole family, masters as well as servants, dined together at noon at one long hall table, and, as distinctions of rank increased, a kind of trench was cut in the oak-table, which was filled with salt, and the servants had to sit "below the salt." The meat was handed round on spits, and each person cut off as much as he wanted. Wooden buckets filled with ale or with mead stood on a side-table, and the drinking-horns or cups were filled at these.—The furniture was of the simplest. Tables on trestles, long benches, large chests with rude carvings for clothes, one or two bedsteads (for the servants slept on the floor or in the out-houses), and a high-backed chair for the master of the house made up the whole.

(i) In houses built of wood the draughts were often very bad. King Alfred, who employed candles to measure his time, had lanterns made for them, so that the draughts might not make them burn too rapidly.

(ii) The word *family* (*familia*=the whole body of *famuli* or servants), in Saxon, as in old Roman times, included the servants of the house as well as the children.

(iii) The Norwegians have still one large family chest, carved and painted, in which the most valuable linen and family property are kept.

11. Language—The Saxon, Anglo-Saxon, or Oldest English language was a highly inflected speech, much like what German is nowadays. Its nouns and adjectives had four cases, the verbs were very variously inflected, and the grammar was highly elaborate and difficult. On the other hand, the vocabulary was very pure, and except in matters relating to the Church, there was no admixture of any foreign element. The following is a short specimen, with a translation.

THE OLDEST ENGLISH OR ANGLO-SAXON

MODERN ENGLISH

Ohthere sæde his hlaforde, Aífrede
cyninge, þæt he ealra Northmonna north
most bude. He ewaeth þæt he bude on
þæm lande northweardum with þa
West-sæc

Ohthere said (to) his lord, Alfred (the)
king, that he of all northmen northmost
abode. He quoth that he abode on the
land (that lies) northwards over against
the Western Sea

(i) *Hlaforde* and *cyninge* are both in the dative case.

(ii) The letter þ is called "the thorn," and represents the *th* in *that*. The letter ð (an aspirated *d*) represents the *th* in *thin*.

(iii) *Falra Northmonna* is in the genitive (or possessive) plural. Compare *Witena* the genitive of *Witan*.

(iv) *Cwaeth* is a form of the more modern *quoth*, which we also find in *bequeath*.

(v) *Thaem* is the dative case of *þæt* (that).

(vi) *Northweardum* is the dative plural. The same plural ending is found in *whilom*, *seldom*.

(vii) *Wit*=over against or against. We have the same meaning in *withstand*=to stand against.

12 Literature—The oldest literature in every nation is always poetry. And so it is with our forefathers the Saxons. The oldest piece of literature in English is the epic poem called the *Beowulf*, which, however, is said to have been brought from the Continent. One of the very oldest English poems in existence is the *Ballad of Brunanburgh*, which was made on the great victory gained on that field by Athelstan in the year 937. The most striking feature in all Saxon poetry was the kind of rhyme they used. It was not the end-rhyme which we now employ—"the jingling sound of like endings," as Milton called it—but a head-rhyme, which consisted in the correspondence of the initial letters of the rhyming words. That is, they rhymed at the beginning, and not at the end. This kind of rhyme is called *alliteration*, and the habit, begun in the very earliest centuries, has so clung to our English poetry that writers like Milton, Tennyson,¹ and Browning employ the device without being at all conscious of it. The following are a few lines—in modern English—from the *Ballad of Brunanburgh*—

Athelstan King,	lord of Earls
Bestower of bracelets	and his brother eke,
Edmund the Etheling	honour eternal
Won in the slaughter	with edge of the sword
By Brunanbury	The bucklers they elave
Hewed the helmets	with hammered steel. ²

Later on, prose was written. Baeda ("the Venerable Bede") translated into English the Gospel of St John, and King Alfred himself turned into the mother-tongue a number of Latin books, among them Bede's "*Ecclesiastical History*." But the chief monument of the pure Anglo-Saxon literature is the *Anglo-Saxon Chronicle*. This Chronicle was begun, it is said, by Alfred, was written in English by Englishmen, and it is "the oldest history of any Teutonic race in its own language."

(i) The *Anglo-Saxon Chronicle*, begun in the reign of Alfred, continued till the reign of Stephen, and "breaks off abruptly in the year 1154 with an unfinished sentence.

(ii) "There are several manuscript versions of the Chronicle, belonging to different abbeys."

¹ The following is a good example from Tennyson's *Day Dream*—

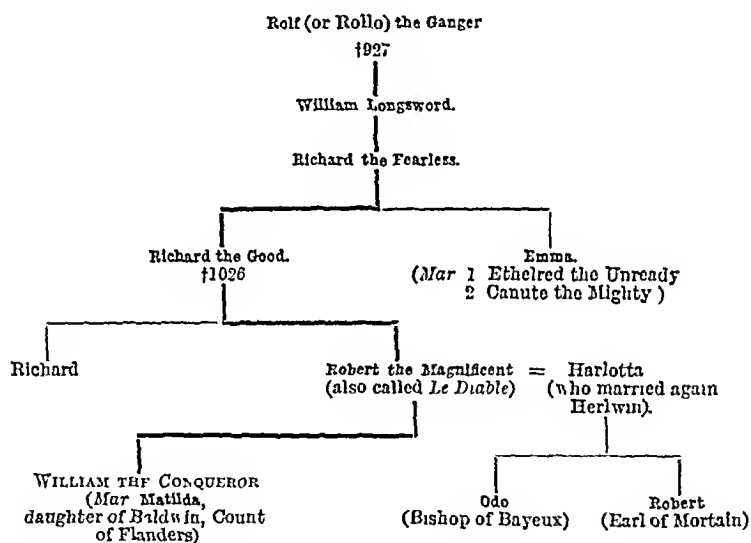
And o'er them many a sliding star,
And many a merry wind was borne
And streamed through many a golden bar,
The twilight melted into morn.

² From Grant Allen's *Anglo-Saxon Britain* "p. 204.

BOOK II

THE NORMAN KINGS

GENEALOGICAL TABLE OF THE HOUSE OF NORMANDY



CHAPTER I

WILLIAM THE FIRST

↓ Born 1027 Seized the throne (at the age of 30) in 1066

Died 1087 Reigned 21 years

↓ WILLIAM, DUKE OF NORMANDY, and First of England, was the illegitimate son of Robert the Magnificent, Duke of Normandy and Maine. His mother was the daughter of a tanner of Falaise. When he was about seven years old, his father made up his mind to go on pilgrimage, and asked the Norman Barons to accept his son as heir to the duchy. The Barons did homage to the child. A year afterwards, Duke Robert died, and the boy's life was one long struggle. At the age of fifteen, he was strong enough to insist that the "Truce of God" should be observed in Normandy. He married, in 1053, Matilda, daughter of Baldwin, Count of Flanders, and a descendant of Alfred the Great.

CONTEMPORARY SOVEREIGNS

SCOTLAND MALCOLM III FRANCE PHILIP I POPE GREGORY VII (Hildebrand)

1 William the Conqueror.—On his return from Normandy, the new King found much of the country in a state of revolt against the tyranny of his half-brother Odo and Fitzosbern, and he had now to enter upon a long campaign, and to fight a series of battles. Sweyn, king of the Danes, had been for two years making ready to attack England, Edgar the Atheling joined him, the men of Devon and the West rose in arms, and all along the Welsh border there were trouble and risings. When William was hunting in the Forest of Dean (in Gloucestershire), he received the news that three thousand Normans, who formed the garrison of York, had been slaughtered to a man, and he swore "by the splendour of God"¹ that he would exact vengeance sixtyfold for every one of them. He marched north

¹ *Per splendorem Dei*—the usual oath of William

with his army, and harried the Vale of York which lies between the Humber and the Tyne, and is the most fertile part of the North of England, with fire and sword. Before opening his campaign, however, he had bought off by a heavy bribe the hostility of the Danish fleet. And so, his hands being free, he set to work and made a clean sweep of everything—lives, houses, cattle, harvest, and all implements of husbandry, and nothing but a desert remained behind the tread of the devastating Norman. That winter, more than a hundred thousand people died in the fields of cold and hunger. The ground lay waste for nine years, and half a century later, ruined towns and desolate fields recalled to men's minds the steps of the "stark" conqueror William. Many persons died of starvation, others "bowed their necks for bread"—that is, sold themselves as slaves. William now struck to the west and took Chester, and with the fall of Chester the best hopes of the English lay dead. It is true that Morcar joined Hereward, and that round Hereward a number of fugitives and outlaws gathered, and built a wooden fort, which they called "the Camp of Refuge," in the Isle of Ely, but the king drove a causeway of stones, trees, and hides, two miles long, into the fens, and completely rooted out this last resistance. Earl Edwin, who had headed the rebellion in the North, was killed in battle, Earl Morcar lay in prison, Earl Waltheof was taken into favour, but afterwards beheaded on a charge of treason, and the Atheling Edgar, after a visit to Scotland, settled quietly down as an ordinary noble, at the court of the Conqueror.

(i) William had, as a precaution, taken with him to Normandy the natural leaders of the English, Edgar the Atheling, Edwin, Morcar, Waltheof, and Stigand.

(ii) "The omission of the Northern Counties from the Domesday Survey throws a grim light on the completeness of the Conquest. "William I is called *Conquestor*, because he *acquired* England, not because he subdued it. —SPELMAN

✓ (iii) It must not be forgotten that William regarded himself, not as a Conqueror, but as the duly elected King of the English. Even the word "*Conqueror*," meant really *Acquirer*. Mr Freeman says "*To conquer means to purchase, and to purchase in law means to get property by any other means than by regular descent.*"

(iv) Kingsley's novel *Hereward the Wake* (=the Watchful) gives a brilliant account of the state of England at this period.

2 Feudalism —By these campaigns the land of England fell into the hands of William, and most of this land he took away from its

English owners, and gave, in larger or in smaller portions, to his Norman followers. But this land was held by them only on a feudal tenure, that is, on condition that the holders would fight for the King, would be "his men," and yield him knight-service in war. On receiving a grant of land, the tenant, having stripped himself of his arms and armour, knelt down, joined his hands, placed them within the hands of his lord the King, and said, "I am your man for life and limb and earthly regard, and I will be faithful and loyal to you through life and in death, so God help me." Then the King kissed him, and this kiss was a sign that the land or "fief" became his and his heirs' for ever. (Thus we may consider that England had been turned into one vast military camp, and sixty thousand knights and many more common soldiers, all holding their land *directly* from the King, were at his call and order every day of their lives.) But he retained the local courts of the shire and of the hundred, and maintained the old laws and organisation framed and upheld by the Godwins, in the time of Edward the Confessor.

3. The three Enemies of William — William the Conqueror had, through the greater part of his life, to defend himself and to maintain his power against three sets of enemies. There were, first of all, the native English, who kept up their struggle till 1071, then, the greedy and dissatisfied Norman Barons, who would gladly have made themselves independent powers in the island, and, lastly, his own sons, who joined with his enemies in France to make war against him.

(i) "William was lawful King of the English, as far as outward ceremonies could make him so. But he knew well how far he was from having won real kingly authority over the whole kingdom. Hardly a third part of the land was in his obedience." — FREEMAN.

✓ (ii) Robert Curthose had asked his father for the duchies of Normandy and Maine, but the Duke replied "Don't think I shall take off my clothes before I go to bed. On this, Robert, with the help of Philip and some dissatisfied Norman barons, took up arms. At Gerberoi (1079), he wounded his father, not knowing who he was. When he heard his father's voice, he dismounted and begged his forgiveness. He afterwards came to England, and built Newcastle.

4 How William maintained his Power — William thought out two excellent plans by which to retain all the power of the realm in his own hands, and to prevent any baron making himself independent of the Crown. The first was to make every landowner pay homage to

William himself, and to hold his land *directly* from him, and thus to be his vassal, and a tenant-in chief. The second was not to allow any man to hold a large quantity of land together. If he gave any baron a great deal of land, he gave it him in many different counties, so that he should never be able to form one great concentrated power. Another purpose of his was to have all the law-courts in the country dependent on the Crown. Thus, with all the land in his own hands, and with all the administration of law in his own power,—with the lands to hold and the law to give, it is plain that the whole power of the country was gathered up and concentrated within himself. This, of course, was the very opposite of the old Saxon custom, but it was the feudal system carried to its logical extreme. The Englishman, in Saxon times, held his own land as his own right, chose his own aldermen, and the aldermen chose the king. Thus the Saxon custom grew and worked from below upwards, the new Norman custom worked from above downwards, and the King was all in all, while the landowner was only something as he held from the King. In the year 1086, William summoned all the Norman and English landholders to meet him at Salisbury, and there called upon them to do homage to himself. Thus if any one of these men came to fight against William, it was an act of high treason, and his life and lands were forfeited.

Meeting at
Salisbury
1086

✓ (i) In Normandy, the Normans only took an oath to their Duke, and not to the King of France. But, though William himself had sworn homage to the King of France for some of his lands, he could lead his Norman barons and knights against the French King, and these Normans were not guilty of treason, as they had sworn only to their own Duke.

(ii) William's half brother, Robert of Mortain, held 703 manors, but he held them in twenty different counties.

✓ (iii) To keep the administration of the law in his own hands, he governed the counties by his own sheriffs, whom he could appoint and whom he could dismiss. He also compelled the ultimate appeal in all cases to be made to the King's Court. He made only four great earldoms—Chester, Shropshire, Durham, and Kent. The first two were made to keep down the Welsh, Durham to beat back the Scots, and Kent, against invaders from the Continent. The earls of these earldoms had royal rights and could appoint their own sheriffs, but William took care to give the earldoms of Durham and Kent to bishops, who could not marry and found families. The Earl of Kent was Odo, William's half brother.

(iv) William seized also on the folkland (common land of the English people), as well as on the estates of those who had fought against him or had been killed in battle.

The whole of Kent, nearly all Surrey and Sussex, and much land in the other shires, passed into the possession of Normans.

(v) William also built castles in the large towns, and at points where highroads crossed each other. The Tower of London, the castles at Hastings, Norwich, Canterbury, Rochester, Windsor, and other places, were all built by him. Robert Curthose, his eldest son, built the fortress on the Tyne called Newcastle.

(vi) In all these ways, and by these means, he made the Crown powerful, and this was the best way to make England a united kingdom. "On that day," says Mr. Freeman, "England became for ever a kingdom, one, and indivisible, which since that day no man has dreamed of parting asunder."

5 Lanfranc and the Church—Another part of William's policy was to have the Church of England on his side. With this view, he deposed Stigand the Saxon Archbishop of Canterbury, and put his own personal friend Lanfranc in his place. He also appointed Norman bishops and abbots whenever vacancies occurred, and the Norman bishops were much better educated men than the English bishops. The Pope at this time was the great Hildebrand—Gregory VII, and he and William were certainly the two greatest and most powerful men in Europe. But William would not allow Pope Gregory too much power over the Church in England. He ordered that no letters should be received by a bishop or abbot from the Pope without his consent, and that no one should be excommunicated by the Pope, without his permission having been previously asked and given. Lanfranc was full of zeal for his Church, and inspired others with the same zeal. Under his rule, many new monasteries were built, and new and beautiful churches rose in all parts of the kingdom.

¶ (i) Lanfranc (1005-89) was an Italian, a native of Pavla. He was first a student of law, he then became a monk in the Abbey of Bec, and rose to be its prior. He opposed William's marriage with his cousin and was banished from Normandy. His friends the monks lent him a sorry hiel to ride away on, and, as he was slowly departing he met the Duke and all his train. "If, Duke," he said, "I had had a comelier steed, I should have been out of your way hours ago!" The Duke laughed and begged him to return with him. It was he who advised William before invading England, to obtain the sanction and support of Christendom and the Pope, and William never forgot his obligation to him. He rebuilt Canterbury Cathedral, which had been destroyed by fire.

¶ (ii) The finest Norman church in England is Durham Cathedral.

¶ (iii) Lanfranc advised William to allow the Church to have separate Courts of its own, and not to send the clergy to plead at a Lay Court.

(iv) "The name of Englishman was turned into a reproach. None of that race for a hundred years were raised to any dignity in the State or in the Church. Their language and the characters in which it was written were rejected as barbarous, in all schools children were taught French, and the laws were administered in no other tongue. In twenty years from the accession of William almost the whole of the soil of England had been divided among foreigners."—THURRY

6 William's Peace.—Though William still had enemies abroad, during the last eleven years of his reign there was firm and settled peace through all his realm of England. It is true that he laid heavy taxes on the people, he revived the old tax of the Danegeld, and made it three times as heavy as it had ever been before his reign. But the country was so well ruled that a man might travel in safety from one end of it to the other "with his bosom full of gold", and not only property but life and limb also were perfectly safe. He had also grown so strong abroad that he held not only Normandy, but Brittany and Maine, and he was not only King of England, but Overlord of Scotland and Wales.

✓ (i) William's most tyrannical and unjust act was to lay waste about 20,000 acres of land in Hants to form the New Forest and to make a law that any man who killed a deer should have his eyes put out. It is worth noticing that his second son Richard and his third son William were killed in this Forest, and a grandson as well.

✓ (ii) "Stark he was," says the Anglo Saxon Chronicle "to men who withstood him, so harsh and cruel he was that none withstood his will. Earls that did aught against his bidding he cast into bonds. Bishops he stripped of their bishoprics, abbots of their abbeys. He spared not his own brother (Odo), first he was in the land, but the king cast him into bondage."

(iii) "He was lord of the land as no king had been before him, and he enjoyed not only all the income of his predecessors, but in addition all the dues which came to him as feudal sovereign. He was thus perhaps the strongest and most absolute monarch that has ever sat upon the English throne."

✓ **7 Domesday Book, 1086**—Every piece of land, to whomsoever belonging, had to pay to the Crown certain dues or "customs". In order that not even the smallest piece of land should escape, William, at a meeting of the Witan held at Gloucester in 1085, issued a royal commission to inquire into the size and value of every holding, however small, and the two volumes in which this valuation is given are called the *Domesday*¹ Book. This royal commission enrolled in every district a jury, which consisted of the sheriff (or reeve of the shire), the lord of the manor,

¹ Dome or doom means judgment or valuation. It is the noun from deem. A judge was called in Old English a *dempter* a title still used in the Isle of Man.

the parish priest, the reeve of the hundred, and six villeins¹ out of every hamlet, who had to declare on oath the size and value of each piece of land, the service due by its owners, and the number of its inhabitants. Thus was written this famous book, which for several centuries served both as a register of lands for taxation, and as a muster-roll for the army of the country.²

(i) Commissioners called before them the reeve, the parish priest, and six villeins from each township, who stated the amount of arable, pasture, and wood land in the township, to whom each part belonged, what its value was, how many landholders, cottars, and slaves there were, what mills there were, what fisheries, etc etc. "So narrowly did he make them seek out all this, that there was not a single hyde or yard of land, nor one ox, nor one cow, nor one swine, left out, that was not set down in his rolls."

(ii) The grades of landed proprietors in the time of William I. were as follows —

- (i) About 600 persons and corporations holding land immediately from the King (*tenants in capite*)
- (ii) About 7870 sub-tenants or under vassals, who held of their superior lords on condition of military service
- (iii) The rest were freemen, burghers, villeins, cottagers, labourers, etc

§ 8 Death of William — In 1087 William was living in Normandy. A joke of France about the figure of the King, who had grown enormously stout, excited him to fury, and he prepared to make war upon his foe. He at once laid waste the border-land between the French kingdom and Normandy, and burned the town of Mantes to the ground. As he was riding through the town, his horse, stepping on some hot cinders, began to plunge violently, and threw William with great force against the high pommel of his saddle. He sustained a severe internal injury, was carried to Rouen, and lingered there in pain for many weeks. His heart was softened a little before he died, he released Earl Morcar and even his half-brother Bishop Odo. To his eldest son, Robert Curthose, he left his birthright, Normandy, to William, his most dutiful son, he gave his splendid conquest of England, and, presenting him with his ring, advised him to hasten across the Channel, to Henry, 5000 lbs of silver, which the young prince took care to see carefully weighed before deserting his father in his last illness and his utmost need. And then the great duke and all-powerful king died without a friend or kinsman near his bed,

¹ The Norman name for *serfs* or slaves

² The second Domesday Book called for by Lord Hampton was published in 1876.

on the 9th of September 1087 He was buried at Caen—a small cathedral city in Normandy

As William's corpse was about to be lowered into its grave at Caen, a man named Asselin Fitz Arthur stepped forth and forbade the burial "This land belonged to my father and it was taken by force from him by this duke. In God's name, I forbid this burial!" These statements were proved to be true, and a promise was made that the full price should be paid. The funeral then went on.

• 9. William's Character and Government—A writer in the Saxon Chronicle says that he was wise and rich, mild to good men, but terrible and "stark to men that withstood his will, all men were obliged to be obedient, and to follow his will, if they would have lands or even life." But this unbending sternness made him all the better king, and his rule all the better for the country. He was cruel in some respects, but his government gave peace to the people. Even Englishmen, who detested the yoke of foreigners, talked of "the good peace he made in the land, so that a man might walk from end to end with his bosom full of gold." But he permitted nothing to interrupt his personal pleasures. He was madly fond of hunting, and he destroyed churches and hamlets, cottages and homesteads, and cleared the country side bare of families and human beings, to make the New Forest¹. He, who was so far in front of his time as to abolish capital punishment and the slave-trade in England, ordained that a man who slew a deer should have his eyes put out. As he grew older, he grew avaricious, and it is even said that, with all his strong sense of justice, he shut his eyes to oppression by his officers if he gained money by it. He heaped together large sums of money at the old capital of England, and these sums were called the Hoard of Winchester. He encouraged commerce and industry by permitting the Flemings and Jews, who followed him from over sea, to settle in the large towns under his immediate protection, and in this purely accidental way he laid the foundation of the future commercial greatness of this commercial country.

The English Feudal System had five legal qualities

- (i) The Hereditability of the grant of land, provided the heir was a man capable of fighting, or provided the heiress married such a man

¹ The word *forest* does not necessarily mean wood but only waste and wild ground. It comes from the Latin word *foris* (=out-of-doors) and a *forestia* meant a piece of land taken out-of the jurisdiction of common law and put under the immediate charge of the King himself. (Large masses of trees would be quite out of place in a deer forest.)

- (ii) The Relief, or handing over a certain quantity of weapons and armour when the land was handed to another person. This was finally commuted into 100 shillings as knight's fee.
- (iii) The Feudal Wardship, which enabled the King to take back the estate if the heir was a minor, and to enjoy the profits of the estate until the heir was twenty-one. The King might further give the heir or heiress in marriage to whomsoever he chose.
- (iv) Aids. These were paid by the holder of land (a) for his Superior, when he had been taken prisoner—to ransom him, (b) to his Superior, when his eldest daughter was married, (c) and when his eldest son was made a knight.
- (v) The Escheat or Forfeiture of the Fief. The land was forfeited to the King (a) if the holder died without heirs, or (b) had committed "felony"—GNEIST

10. Great Men—The most prominent personages in the reign of William were Odo of Bayeux, William Fitz Osbern, and Lanfranc on the Norman side, Edgar the Atheling, Earl Edwin, Earl Morcar, Earl Waltheof, and Stigand on the English side. Of these, Lanfranc was by far the ablest man, and did more for the Church and State of England than any other administrator.

11 Social Facts—From the beginning of William's reign there stood opposite to each other in England two peoples—the Normans and the English. The Normans were soldiers, accustomed to fight and to rule, but not to till the ground, and they spoke Norman-French, the English were, most of them, farmers and labourers, and they spoke English. The problem for future times was on what terms these two peoples were to live together, and how they were to amalgamate—William's rule was felt everywhere. It was felt even in so small a regulation as the curfew-bell. But England received from the Norman not only new laws and almost a new constitution, it received also new arts, new modes of expression, and higher aims in literature. To the Norman, England owed also the Norman-French element in the English Language—an element full of colour, vivacity, spirit, and life. "To Normandy," says a historian, "we owe the builder, the knight, the schoolman, and the statesman."

(i) "England presented the singular spectacle of a native population with a foreign sovereign, a foreign hierarchy, and a foreign nobility. The King was a Norman, the bishops and principal abbots were Normans, and, after the death of Waltheof, every earl and every powerful vassal of the Crown was a Norman."

(ii) "The Normans," says Creasy, "had acquired the language, the arts, and the civilisation of the Romanized Gauls and the Romanized Franks." "The polite luxury of the Norman," says Macaulay, "presented a striking contrast to the

coarse voracity and drunkenness of Saxon and Danish neighbours. He loved to display his magnificence not in piles of food and hogsheads of strong drink, but in large and stately edifices, rich armour, gallant horses, choice falcions, well ordered tournaments, and banquetts delicate rather than abundant."

(iii) The Curfew bell was a mere police order to diminish the chances of fires. Most of the houses of the time were built of wood and covered with thatch—which became very dry, and this police law lasted in England till the sixteenth century. Even now the curfew bell is rung at eight o'clock in many parishes.

(iv) The Cinque Ports were five harbours, strongly fortified by the Conqueror, to protect the island against invasion. They were Dover, Hastings, Romney, Hythe, and Sandwich. To these Winchelsea and Rye were afterwards added. Winchelsea is now inland, the sea has receded for several miles.

(v) The Channel Islands became practically annexed to England by the Norman Conquest.

SHORT CHRONOLOGY AND SUMMARY OF WILLIAM I's REIGN

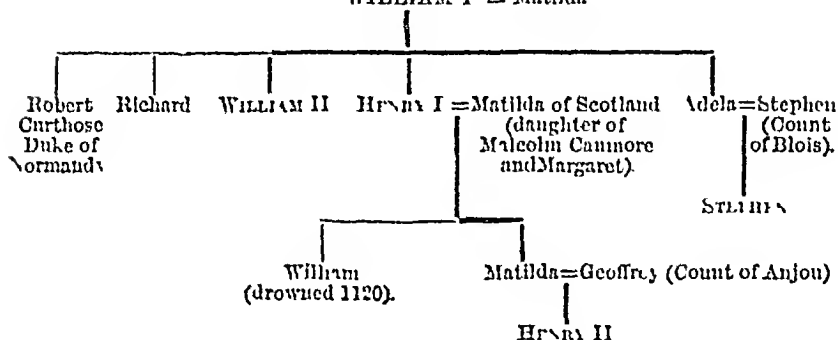
1066	December 25 William is crowned in Westminster Abbey	1072	William invades Scotland and exacts homage from Malcolm
1067	William visits Normandy leaving Odo and William Fitzosbern in charge of England	1073	William conquers Maine with an English army
1068	William takes Exeter and puts down the rising in the West. This completes the subjugation of Wessex	1078	Robert William's son, rebels and nearly kills his father at Gerberoi. Robert submits
1069	William takes York, and puts down the rising in the North.	1084	William renews the tax of Danegeld (abolished by Edward the Confessor), and raises it to 6s per hide of land instead of 2s
1070	Stigand is deposed and Lanfranc made Archbishop of Canterbury	1085	Survey of England ordered at the Council of Gloucester
1071	Rising of Earls Edwin and Morcar. Edwin killed. Morcar joins Hereward. This is the last English struggle for independence.	1086	Survey completed and registered in the Domesday Book.
		1087	William makes war on Philip King of France. Dies of internal wound received at Mantua.

IMPORTANT CONTEMPORARY EVENTS

1070	Malcolm Canmore (= Bighead) marries Margaret, sister of Edgar Atheling	1076	The Turks take Palestine
1073	Hildebrand becomes Pope under the title of Gregory VII. (to 1085).	1087	Moorish Empire in Spain.

GENEALOGICAL TABLE OF NORMAN KINGS OF ENGLAND

WILLIAM I = Matilda



(i) Stephen was the nephew of Henry I and grandson of the Conqueror in the female line

(ii) Stephen was the second cousin of Henry II

(iii) Henry II, being the son of the Count of Anjou, was the first of the Angevin Line

(iv) Margaret was the daughter of the Saxon Prince "Edward the Outlaw", and thus in Henry II were united the two lines—the Anglo Saxon and the Anglo Norman



CHAPTER II

WILLIAM THE SECOND

Born 1057 Succeeded (at the age of 30) in 1087 Died 1100
Reigned 13 years

WILLIAM RUFUS was the third, but second surviving, son of William the Conqueror. His eldest son was Robert Curthose, so called from his short legs, his second son, Richard, was killed in the New Forest. William Rufus was never married. He was called *Rufus*, or Red, from his fiery complexion and blood shot eyes.

CONTEMPORARY SOVEREIGNS

SCOTLAND MALCOLM III FRANCE PHILIP II (the Overlord of Robert)
ROBERT, Duke of Normandy

1 William II, 1087-1100 — William Rufus was, of all the Conqueror's sons, most like his father in appearance and in character. His father, before his death, had written a letter to Lanfranc, begging him to use his influence with the English Witan to have Rufus elected king, and, accordingly, Lanfranc's advice prevailed, and he was elected King of England and crowned on the 26th of September 1087. The Norman Barons, headed by Odo, saw that if the easy-going Robert were to succeed to the Crown, they would have a much better chance of feudal independence, and they therefore took up arms against William. But William had a firm friend in Lanfranc, the English were on his side, for he promised them good government, the repeal of the forest laws, and the reduction of taxes, they were against the Norman nobles, from whom they had suffered much and many things, and Wulfstan, the Bishop of Worcester, and at this time the only English bishop in the country, ranged himself on William's side. Odo and his friends were driven into the castle of Rochester. Thus they were at last obliged to surrender and so terribly had the Englishmen of Kent

Rebellion
of Norman
Barons,
1088.

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suffered from the tyranny of Odo when he was earl of that county, that they crowded round him as he marched out, with loud shouts of "Gallows and the cord for the traitor bishop! A halter for the bishop!" "At the sound of these imprecations," says Thierry, "the priest who had blessed the Norman army at the Battle of Hastings left England never to return" This defeat of Odo and the Norman Barons checked their power, prevented their strengthening themselves by building high castles, and thus indirectly encouraged the growth of towns and the prosperity of agriculture by making peace in the land. So long as Lanfranc lived, William followed the policy of his father, and used the powers of the native English against the ambition of the barons. Against Wales, he built a line of fortresses on the Cheshire border and in the Severn valley. These were placed in the care of the Lords of the Marches (or "Lords Marchers")

(i) Robert Curthose had Normandy, William Rufus, England. This arrangement was in harmony with the ideas of the time, by which hereditary possessions went to the eldest son, and acquired property to the younger. But, even at this time William the Conqueror could not "leave" England to his second son by will.

(ii) The rebellion of Odo and the Norman Barons against Rufus is remarkable for two things —

- (a) William relied on the *English people* proclaimed all Englishmen *nothings* (=good for nothings) who would not follow him, and called out the *English Fyrd* (a national militia) to help him against his own countrymen.

The proclamation ran thus — 'Let him that is worth anything, either in the towns, or out of the towns leave his house and come!'

- (b) Twenty two years after the landing of the Normans in Pevensey Bay in 1066, the remarkable sight was seen of an *English* army under a Norman King beating back a Norman army under a Norman Duke at the same place. For Duke Robert had sent over a fleet from Normandy to help Odo.

'This was the beginning of that alliance between the Monarchy and the People which fostered by Henry I and Henry II and confirmed by the great Edward secured victory for the Crown in its struggle with the feudal aristocracy.'

2 **Ralph Flambard.**—The good and able Archbishop Lanfranc died in 1089, and William took as his chief adviser a Norman priest called Ralph or Ranulph, and nicknamed Flambard, or the *Firebrand*. This man was his chaplain, but he really acted as Lord Chief Justice or Justiciar, and travelled about the country trying cases and extorting bribes. William was both lavish and grasping, extravagant and avaricious. His chief means of raising money was to keep the bishops' sees and the abbacies vacant when the bishop or abbot died,

and to put the revenues into his own pocket. So far did he carry this practice, that, at the close of his reign, one archbishopric, four bishoprics, and eleven abbeys were without heads. He travelled about the country with a court composed of worthless and cruel men, who behaved with an insolence and tyranny from which the people fled on all sides. They lived everywhere at free quarters, they trampled under foot the bread they did not eat, they washed their horses' feet in good home brewed ale, and now and then, out of mere drunken frolic, they burnt down the house which had given them shelter for the night. Flambard, who was made Bishop of Durham, laid on the poor hard-working people ever heavier and heavier taxes, but he was ready, said the English, to loose the halter from the robber's neck if the thief could pay for his life.

(i) The Justiciar was the highest officer in the kingdom, took the king's place, ruled in the king's stead when he was abroad, and writs were issued in his name.

(ii) Flambard took care to give to all his extortions and exactions the form of law. His chief method was this—he induced the king to look upon the lands and property of bishops and abbots as lands held by a feudal tenure—held in the same way as those owned by his barons. Thus bishops and abbots had, on their accession, to pay the same dues as other tenants in chief, and the king came to consider bishoprics and abbeys as ordinary fiefs which he might give away or keep at his own pleasure. "In his days," says the Chronicle, "all justice sank and all unrighteousness arose."

✓ (iii) Flambard also made heirs pay very large fines ("reliefs") when they came into their properties, if an heir was a minor, the king acted as his guardian, but put the proceeds of the estate during the years of minority into his own pocket, and Rufus took care to marry wealthy heiresses to his own friends.

✓ (iv) When Anselm was appointed Archbishop of Canterbury, he was expected to pay a handsome fine to the king.

113 Events of the Reign (1) William attacked, in 1090, his brother Robert in his dukedom of Normandy; he repelled an invasion of the Scots, and forced King Malcolm to become his *man*, he built a castle at Carlisle, and colonised the town with peasants from the south of England. (2) The archbishopric of Canterbury had been kept vacant for four years, when William, in the course of a severe illness, was frightened into appointing Anselm, the Abbot of Bec, a pupil and a friend of the great Lanfranc. William, in making this appointment, promised to restore the Church property, but when he got well again, he forgot or refused, and this, coupled with his great harshness and injustice, at last drove Anselm

Anselm
Archbishop
of Canter-
bury

1093

into exile. He remained at Rome till after the death of the King. In 1096 the first expedition to wrest the sepulchre of Christ from the hands of the Mahometans set out and Robert of Normandy joined this crusade. To meet his expenses, he sold (or mortgaged) his dominions—Normandy and Maine—to his brother William for five years, and the price paid was £6666 or 10,000 marks of silver.

(i) Malcolm Canmore, King of Scots, was the brother in law of Edgar Atheling and naturally opposed William Rufus. He had also claims of his own to Cumberland and Westmoreland. But, when William returned from Normandy, he attacked Malcolm, took Cumberland (which had till then been part of Strathclyde) in 1092, and built a strong castle at Carlisle on the Eden. This castle was the western counterpart to Newcastle on the eastern side of the island.

(ii) Anselm of Aosta (in Piedmont) had been Abbot of Bec. He was very unwilling to accept so difficult an office. "The plough of the church," he said, "has been drawn by two strong oxen (William I and Lanfranc), how can a poor weak sheep like me do any good, yoked to a wild bull (William II)?" But the bishops around him forced the crozier into his hands, and hurried him off to the Cathedral to instal him.

(iii) "Anselm," says Macanlay, "was the first protector whom the English found among the dominant caste." He was unable to approve either of the private conduct of the King, or of the way in which he persisted in robbing the Church.

(iv) The First Crusade began in 1095. The great "Easter Fair" at Jerusalem was one of the great markets of the world, where Western met Eastern merchants and exchanged their goods. But, in 1076, a band of Seljukian Turks took Jerusalem, oppressed the merchants and abused the pilgrims. The appeal of the Pope and of Peter the Hermit stirred all Europe from Sicily to Norway. Pope Urban II preached in favour of the Crusade, and it was led by Peter the Hermit and Walter the Penniless. It was really an undisciplined rabble, which started from France, marched across Hungary and Bulgaria, and committed all kinds of crime—robbery, murder, etc. About 250,000 perished on the road or by the hands of the Turks. But they were followed by the chivalry of Europe divided into six armies, led by distinguished men, the most famous of whom were Godfrey of Bouillon, Stephen of Blois, and Robert of Normandy. The kings of France and England encouraged this military movement as it rid them of some of their most quarrelsome and turbulent subjects. After taking Jerusalem, they spent three days in slaughtering 70,000 Moslems, they then ascended the Hill of Calvary, bareheaded and barefooted, with songs of praise and thanksgiving. The crown of the kingdom of Jerusalem was offered to Robert, who declined it, and it was accepted by Godfrey of Bouillon. (Jerusalem was taken on Good Friday of 1099.)

4 William's Death—William was as fond of hunting as his father was, extended the forest-lands and made the forest laws harder and stricter than ever, and, in this and other ways, earned for himself widespread hatred among the English. Rumours of some dreadful evil about to happen to him were current in the land, and on the 2d of August 1100, when he thought of riding out to hunt, his friends

tried earnestly to dissuade him. The night before, their dreams had been filled with signs and disasters. Their fears and their talk had made some impression on him, and had shaken his intentions a little, but after he had dined and drunk rather freely, he broke into a rage. "Do you take me for an Englishman,¹ that I should trouble my head about old wives' fancies?" and calling for his horse, he leapt into the saddle. His brother Henry, his favourite Walter Tyrrel, William de Breteuil, and others formed part of his suite, as they cantered rapidly and silently through the glades of the New Forest. The party soon scattered in pursuit of sport. Suddenly a cry was heard, the word passed from mouth to mouth that the King was killed, and, on galloping up, they found him stretched upon the ground with an arrow through his breast. Whether it was the arrow of a hunter or of an assassin, no one ever knew. For years there had been heavy taxes grinding and weighing down the poor, and there had also been famine in the country. Suspicion fell on Walter Tyrrel, who fled to France, but he always denied the deed. Prince Henry, after a glance at the body of his brother, galloped off as hard as he could to Winchester, and demanded the keys of the Royal Hoard. William de Breteuil had followed him, and there claimed the Crown for Robert, but Henry, drawing his sword, swore that no foreign-born prince should rule in England, that he himself had been born in the country, and was therefore the rightful heir. The body of William—"like a wild boar pierced by the hunters"—was thrown into the cart of a poor charcoal-burner, who brought it alone and unattended to Winchester. No man asked how he died, no inquiry was made, no bell was tolled, no prayer was raised, but the bleeding body was lowered into its grave in the Cathedral of Winchester, and a plain uncarved slab—which may still be seen—was placed over the body of the English King. He was forty-three at the time of his death.

5 The Character of William—He was a short, thick-set man, with bull neck, yellow hair, and a face of so fiery a hue as to gain for him the nickname of the Red King. He had none of the qualities that go to make a good ruler, except prompt courage and strong will. Once, when hunting in the New Forest, he heard that Elias, Count of

¹ This was the common Norman form of deprecation in the twelfth century—the strongest form of expressing contempt.

Maine, had surprised and seized the city of Mans. He immediately turned his horse about, rode down to the shore, jumped into the first fishing-boat he saw, and put to sea in a heavy gale. His courtiers wished him to wait for a better boat and fairer weather, but his only reply was "Did you ever hear of a king being drowned?"

6 Great Men.—The most distinguished characters of this reign are Odo of Bayeux and Lanfranc, and, in the after part of it, Flambard and Anselm. The policy of Odo was to favour Duke Robert and to place him on the throne of England, because, under his loose and careless rule, Odo and the Norman barons could have made themselves into independent powers, ruling and doing as they pleased within their own baronies and earldoms, just as the French barons had been accustomed to do.—The policy of Lanfranc was to strengthen the power of the Church, and to limit the power of the Pope within the realm of England.—The policy of Flambard was to put as much power in the hands, and as much money in the pockets, of William as he possibly could, and thus without appealing directly to military force, but always within the limits, and supported by the forms, of law.—The policy of Anselm was to make the Church independent of the Crown, and, for this purpose, to increase the power of the Pope in and over the Church of England.

"The feudal customs of aids, reliefs, etc., were developed by Flambard into a great system of extortion. The townsfolk and the cultivators of the soil were weighed down by heavy taxes."—PROTHERO

7 Social Facts.—The Crusades had a good and beneficial side for the English towns. Several guilds and towns purchased charters from barons who wanted money to go to Jerusalem with, and these barons gave up their powers and privileges to the towns in exchange for gold.—William II encouraged building and architecture. He built a wall round the Tower of London, he raised a strong stone bridge—London Bridge—over the Thames, and he built the splendid hall which, even at the present day, forms the magnificent entrance to the two Houses of Parliament, and which is called Westminster Hall.—In the last year of this reign, the sea overflowed, the estates of Earl Godwin, in the east of Kent, drowned thousands of men and myriads of cattle, and formed the bank now known to sailors as the Goodwin Sands.

(i) As these charters carried with them the right of trading, levying of local dues, and such like burghal privileges, they did much to develop a wealthy merchant class. The Crusades, too, being indirectly the means of exchanging, on a new and wider scale, the commodities of the East and West, gave rise to the commercial republics of Italy (Genoa, Venice, etc.), the far famed trading marts of mediæval times.

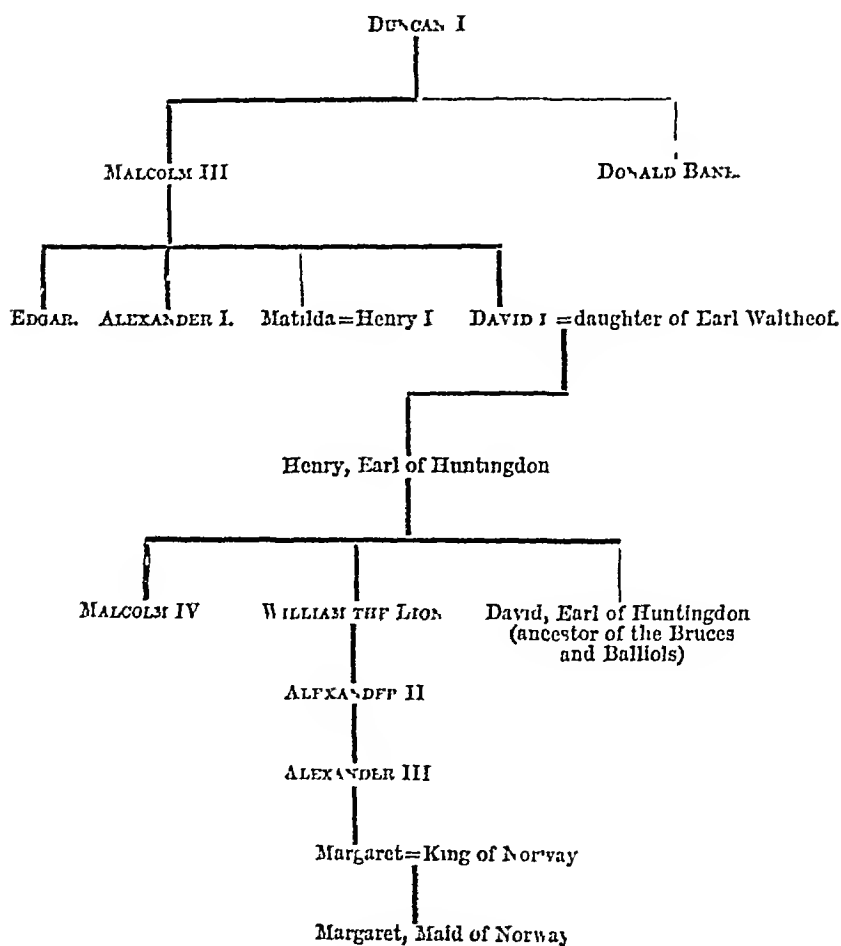
✓ (ii) London Bridge (of wood) had been carried away by the floods of February 1098.

✓ 8 Scotland to 1097 —The King of Scotland from 1058 to 1093 was Malcolm III, son of Duncan I. He was commonly called Canmore (or Bighead). The revolution in England produced by the Battle of Hastings in 1066 had this effect upon Scotland, that it drove out Edgar the Atheling and his sister Margaret, who took refuge with Malcolm III, at his Court in Dunfermline. Malcolm married Edgar's sister, who, for her goodness and kindness to the poor, was long after known in Scotland as St Margaret. In the year 1072, William the Conqueror invaded Scotland and compelled Malcolm to "become his man." Nineteen years after, in 1091, Malcolm quarrelled with William Rufus, raised an army, and invaded England. He was slain in an attack on Alnwick Castle. When the good Queen Margaret heard of his fall, "she was in mind," says the Saxon Chronicle, "afflicted unto death, and with her priests went to church, and received her rites, and obtained by prayer to God, that she might give up her spirit"—Donald Bane, the brother of Malcolm, seized on the throne and held it till 1097. Edgar the Atheling now repaid the kindness of his brother-in-law. He raised an English army, marched to the assistance of his nephew and namesake Edgar, the son of Malcolm, and aided him in making his way to the Scottish throne.

(i) Malcolm III was extremely kind to Edgar the Atheling, gave him twice a princely outfit—including "golden and silver vessels, and at last persuaded him to give up his claims on the Crown of England and submit to King William.

(ii) Queen Margaret "found that the people of Scotland did not respect the Lord's Day, but followed their usual occupations upon it as on the ordinary week days. On her remonstrance this was rectified, so that the first day of the week was sanctified from labour." She also founded a monastery at Dunfermline, and "rebuilt the church at Iona, which had been desolated by the Norsemen."—HILL BURTON.

GENEALOGICAL TABLE OF THE SCOTTISH KINGS FROM 1033 TO 1286



SHORT CHRONOLOGY AND SUMMARY OF WILLIAM II'S REIGN

- | | |
|---|---|
| <p>1087 William II is elected king by the Witan.</p> <p>1088 Rebellion of the Norman Barons headed by Odo, Bishop of Bayeux and Earl of Kent. Suppressed by the aid of the English Fyrd.</p> <p>1089 Death of Lanfranc. See of Canterbury kept vacant for four years.</p> <p>1091 Treaty between William and Robert. Whichever survives the other, to have <i>both</i> Normandy and England, and, whichever dies childless, the other to be his heir.</p> | <p>1093 Anselm becomes Archbishop of Canterbury.</p> <p>1094. Ralph Flambard is made Justiciar. He employs the forms of law to extort money from all classes.</p> <p>1096 Robert pledges his duchy for five years to William for £6666 to go on the First Crusade.</p> <p>1097 Anselm retires to Rome.</p> <p>1100 William is killed in the New Forest.</p> |
|---|---|

IMPORTANT CONTEMPORARY EVENTS OF WILLIAM II'S REIGN

- | | |
|---|--|
| <p>1089 Robert of Normandy quarrels with his younger brother Henry (afterwards Henry I), and puts him in prison.</p> <p>1093 Malcolm III (Canmore), King of Scotland, is killed. Donald Bane succeeds him.</p> <p>1096 Duke Robert of Normandy goes on the First Crusade.</p> | <p>1097 Donald Bane, King of Scotland, deposed Edgar, son of Malcolm III and Margaret, sister of Edgar Atheling, is placed on the throne by his uncle.</p> <p>1099 Jerusalem taken by the Crusaders and the Christian kingdom of Jerusalem founded. Godfrey of Bouillon is the first king.</p> |
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PLAN OF DATES
ELEVENTH CENTURY

	1012	1013 Ethelred flees to Norway	1021
who the	1015 Canute conquers Wessex.	1016 Death of Ethelred EDMUND IRONSIDE and CANUTE. Edmund murdered	1024
of rk on,	1018	1019	1027 Canute goes to Rome
1040 Harold Harefoot dies HARDICANUTE			
	1042 Hardicanute dies. EDWARD THE CONFESSOR.	1043	1051 Revolt of Earl Godwin.
	1045 Early Norman style of Architecture.	1046	1054 Macbeth defeated by Earl Siward of Northumbria.
	1048	1049	1057
posed	1070 Lanfranc made Archbishop of Canterbury		
le for card.	1072 Malcolm Canmore does homage to William.	1073 William conquers Maine with an English army	1081
arons	1075	1076	1084 Danegelt renewed, at 6s per hide.

1035	1006	1007 Danes bought off with 25,000 lbs of silver	1003	1009
Wessex		1030 Canute goes on pilgrimage to Rome		
	1023	1031 Canute forces Malcolm king of Scots to do his page for Lothian	1032	1033
	1026	1034	1035 Canute dies HAROLD I (HARE FOOT) and HARDICANUTE	1036 Alfred son of Ethel murdered.
Denmark	1029 The Kings Dief constructed between Peterborough and Ramsay	1037 HAROLD I, King of All England.	1038	1039
at Court		1060		
reared to top of	1053 Death of Earl Godwin Harold Earl of Wessex	1061	1062	1063 Wales made tributary Harold.
ceeded ber of son)	1056	1064	1065 Justig superseded by Earl Mortar	1066 HAROLD II (I) Battle of Stam Bridge (II) Battle of Hasting WILLIAM I
	1059	1067 William I visits Nor mandy Bishop Odo and Fitz Osbern in charge of England I'd ear the Atheling flees to Scotland	1068 People of Northumber land rebel They send for Edgar	1069 Rising of the Nor The Danes and Ed assist.
rested.		1090 William invades Normandy		
	1083	1091 Malcolm Canmore with Edgar the Atheling in vades England	1092	1093 Anselm Archbishop Canterbury
of Eng	1086 Dome day Book. All the landholders of England swear allegi ance to William at Salisbury	1094 Ralph Flambard Justiciar	1095	1096
ed King ormans, ceased by	1089 Death of Lanfranc See of Canterbury vacant for four years Ralph Flambard, the Kings adviser	1097 Anselm flees to Rome	1098	1099 Capture of Jerusalem Godfrey of Bouillon



CHAPTER III

HENRY THE FIRST

Born 1068 Succeeded (at the age of 32) in 1100 Died 1135
Reigned 35 years

HENRY I (nicknamed Beauclerc, or Good Scholar, from his knowledge of Greek and Latin) was the fourth and youngest son of William the Conqueror. He was English born, his birthplace being Selby in Yorkshire. He was twice married. His first wife was Edith of Scotland, the daughter of Malcolm, King of Scots, and Margaret, sister of Edgar Atheling. Edith took the Norman name of Matilda (or Maud) on her marriage, and was long known as "the good queen Maud." Matilda had two children—William (who was drowned in 1120), and Matilda (afterwards "Lady of England"). His second wife was Adelais the Fair, of Louvain, daughter of the Duke of Brabant. She had no children.

It was his translation of *Æop's Fables* into French that won for Henry the name of *Beauclerc*.

CONTEMPORARY SOVERLIGNS

SCOTLAND	{	EDGAR.			
		ALEXANDER I	FRANCE	PHILIP I	POPE PASCAL II
		DAVID I			

1. **The Charter of Liberties**—Immediately on the death of his brother, Henry rode off to Winchester and seized the Royal Hoard in that city. Three days after, Henry was crowned at Westminster, in the absence of Anselm, by Maurice, Bishop of London, while his brother Robert was loitering on his way home from his crusade in the East. Henry knew well that the success of his usurpation would depend on the support he could obtain from the English, and he at once issued to the people what was called a *Charter of Liberties*. In this charter he chiefly promised three things to the Church, that he would neither retain, sell, nor farm out vacant benefices, to his vassals and their sub-vassals, or *vasassours*, freedom from sundry taxes and

exactions, and to the English people, the restoration of the laws of the good King Edward. He also threw Flambard into the Tower, and recalled Anselm to his See. The whole of Henry's reign is chiefly a narrative of the struggles between him and his barons.

(i) Robert had by far the best claim to the Crown. First, by birth, and, secondly, by the express terms of the treaty made with Rufus. But Henry, who was entirely selfish, got "the Witan, that was near at hand, to choose him for their king."

(ii) The four first acts of his reign made Henry very popular. These were (a) the issue of the Charter of Liberties, (b) his marriage with Edith of Scotland, (c) his imprisonment of Flambard, and (d) his recall of Anselm.

(iii) The chief points of this new charter were these: (a) that the King should not put in his pocket the revenues of vacant bishoprics and abbeys, (b) that only just and lawful reliefs should be paid by the nobles, and that heiresses and widows should not be married against their will, (c) that the Danegelt should be abolished, and (d) that the tenants-in-chief should deal with their tenants as the King dealt with them. A copy of this charter was sent to one abbey in each shire.

(iv) Henry's marriage with Edith of Scotland united the two lines—the Saxon and the Norman, and the children of the marriage were descendants of Alfred as well as of William the Conqueror. Any member of the Royal Family of England can now trace his descent up to Cerdic, the first King of Wessex.

(v) Flambard escaped from the Tower by a coil of rope sent to him in a jar of wine. With the wine he intoxicated his jailers, and by the rope he scaled down the walls. It was said of him in England that he not merely "fleece'd, but slay'd the flock."

(vi) Anselm was asked "to come back, like a father, to his son Henry, and the English people."

2 Henry's Marriage—The Norman Barons soon began to plot against Henry's government, which was too strict for them, and to aim at placing on the throne Robert, under whom they hoped to go on pretty much as they liked. But this only threw the King more and more on the side of the English. Henry had married a princess of English descent—Edith, the daughter of Malcolm, king of Scots, and of Margaret, the sister of Edgar the Atheling. On her marriage she took the Norman name of Matilda or Maud, and was long known as "Maud the Good." This marriage delighted the English, for thus the Saxon line of Cerdic and Alfred was united with the Scandinavian line of Rolf and William the Conqueror. And with this beginning the fusion of the English and the Norman also began, a fusion that went on so rapidly, that the distinctive name of *Norman* had died out about the middle of the twelfth century, and the descendants of the heroes of Hastings at length became proud of the name of *Englishman*.

Saxon and
Norman
Lines united
1100

Henry also raised an army of Englishmen to resist any Norman invasion that might be made, and, as the Norman nobles refused to teach them, he trained them himself in all warlike and knightly exercises. Duke Robert invaded England, assisted by the barons, but the English were faithful to the King, and Anselm, stepping in, managed to heal the quarrel without bloodshed. Not long Tenchebrai after, Henry invaded Normandy, and on the field of 1106. Tenchebrai utterly broke—then and for ever—the power of Robert and his barons. Robert was brought to England, thrown into prison at Cardiff, and confined there till his death in 1134.

(i) The leader of the barons was Robert de Belleme, Earl of Shrewsbury, "in cruelty pre-eminent among the savages of the age." He was the most powerful baron in England, had thirty-four castles in Normandy, and a number along the Welsh Marches. Henry raised an English army against him, took his castles, and drove him into exile. The English were delighted, praised King Henry, and made poems about his victory. "You are a true king now," they cried, "your reign begins in good earnest from the day you beat down Robert of Bellême."

(ii) It is worthy of notice that the Battle of Tenchebrai was fought on the 14th of October—the anniversary of the Battle of Senlac.

(iii) William Fitz Robert or Clito, the son of Duke Robert, ought to have succeeded his father as Duke of Normandy. But Henry was determined to keep both dominions in his own hand, and attacked William Clito and the King of France at Brenville, near Rouen, in 1119, and gained a complete victory. Clito died soon after.

3 Events of this reign—William I had always resisted the power of the Pope, and claimed the right of appointing bishops, and of investing them with ring and crozier, just as he used to hand lance and sword to a military vassal. Archbishop Anselm resisted this claim, but Henry persisted in it. At last it was agreed that the Pope alone should give the ring, and that Henry should receive homage for all lay fiefs from which the bishops received revenue. To help on the measures taken by his father to keep down the Welsh, Henry introduced a colony of Flemings from Flanders, and planted them in the district of Ross and Haverfordwest, in Pembrokeshire. Here they tilled the ground and built factories for the weaving of cloth, and, supported by the Lords Marchers,¹ held their own against all the attacks of the Welsh and the Welsh princes.

¹ *March* (the border) has the other form of *marh*. Hence *Denmark* and *Finmark* the *mark* or *confin* of the Danes and Finns. Hence also *Margate*, *Mar'graf*, the verb *marl*, and others. Hence probably, too, the word *market* as all places for exchange would be on the borders of two countries or states.

(1) This was the standing quarrel between the Archbishops of Canterbury and the Kings of England about *Investiture*. The bishops and abbots held broad lands, and were most of them great barons, and the King insisted on his right of appointing these bishops and abbots and of investing them with their offices by giving them the ring and the staff, and then of receiving from them homage for their lands. But the Church Council of 1099 commanded Anselm to resist the claims put forward by Henry I, and the Pope ruled that the giving of the ring and staff implied the bestowal of a spiritual office. Accordingly, Anselm refused to do homage to his new King, or to consecrate the bishops whom Henry had created. Neither side would give way. Henry went on making bishops, Anselm went on declining to consecrate them. It was at length agreed that the election of bishops should be placed in the hands of the cathedral clergy, but that the choice should be made in the King's Court. The temporal estates were to be conferred by the King. The bishop chosen was to do homage for his land, and the archbishop was thereafter to consecrate him, and give him the ring and staff. (Dr Lingard says "If Henry surrendered an unnecessary ceremony, he still retained the substance.")

(ii) The *Flemings* (=Flanders folk) were spinners and weavers of wool. A colony of them also settled at Worsted in Norfolk, and gave this name to woollen yarn.

4 The White Ship, 1120—Henry spent the three years from 1117 to 1120 in Normandy, for the purpose of keeping down the turbulent barons, and of securing the succession to the dukedom for his son William, "the Atheling," as he was proudly and fondly called by the English. To further this end he married him to Matilda, daughter of the Count of Anjou. On his return to England, the King set sail, accompanied by a crowd of nobles. The ship in which his son William was embarked was called the *Blanche Nef*,¹ and, filled with young nobles and drunken sailors,—for the young prince had distributed stoups of wine among the crew,—it lingered till evening behind the rest of the royal fleet. At length it cast loose from the pier. Driven by the arms of fifty excited rowers, it swept at the highest speed out of the harbour, but there was no herd to guide, and the ship, ill-rowed in the darkness of the coming night, struck against the rock of Catteville and filled rapidly. Prince William put off in a small boat, but the shrieks of his sister, the Countess of Perche, moved him to row back to the wreck, and his boat was sunk by the maddened crowd who tried to swarm over its sides. One man only, a butcher of Rouen, was saved out of three hundred. Henry heard the news next morning, fell speechless to the ground, and was never seen to smile again.

Prince
William
drowned
1120

¹ This is the Old French form of the Latin words *Blanca Navis* "White Ship."

5 **Henry's Second Marriage.**—The good Queen Maud had died in 1118, and Henry had married again. But his second wife had no children, and he therefore resolved to settle the crown upon his daughter Matilda. To do this, he had to have recourse to a good deal of scheming. Matilda had been married to Henry V, Emperor of Germany, but, soon after her brother's death she became a widow. The barons detested the notion of a woman's rule, a female sovereign was a thing as unknown in England as in Normandy, but Henry had won over many of them by means of his constant and faithful agent—gold. He also married Matilda to Geoffrey, the son of the powerful Count of Anjou, and their son was Henry Plantagenet,¹ afterwards Henry II.

The first to take the oath of fealty to Matilda was David, king of Scotland. The second was Stephen, Count of Bologne, son of the Conqueror's daughter Adela, and therefore nephew of Henry and cousin of Matilda. The third (though he claimed the second place) was Robert, Duke of Gloucester, the illegitimate son of the King, and the jailer of his uncle Robert of Normandy.

6 **Henry's Death, 1135**—Henry died in Normandy on the 1st of December. He was very fond of lampreys, and after a day spent in hunting, he ate very heartily of them. His body was brought to England and buried in Reading Minster, which he had himself built.—The three great events of his reign were the conquest of Normandy, the crushing of the baronial power, and the small beginnings—the faint dawn—of the power of the middle classes in the towns. During this king's reign, the spirit of the English people began to grow into a national spirit, and his policy went a long way to undo the wrongs that the Conqueror had wrought upon the people and the country. By the victory of Tenchebrai—an English victory upon Norman soil—he atoned for the defeat at Hastings. Normandy, through him, became an appanage of the English Crown, whereas England under the Conqueror had been an appanage of Normandy, and the strong English middle class—the class which gives itself to industry and commerce—under his care began to show that it might one day become an equipoise to the military power of the barons. He granted a charter to London, and many other boroughs received from him charters based on the model of this. In his brother's time the people fled to the woods when they heard of a

¹ *Plante de genet (genista)* that is, broom. He wore a sprig of broom in his cap.

"Royal Progress" But he put an effectual stop to the misconduct of his Norman attendants, and the English who marked and felt this new and unheard of procedure learned to speak of him as the "Lion of Justice," foretold in the prophecies of the ancient Welsh magician and soothsayer, Merlin To provide for the succession, Henry had caused all his barons to swear allegiance to Matilda, and among others, Stephen, his nephew, Count of Blois, and son of Adela, a daughter of the Conqueror, had taken the oath

(i) The Battle of Tenchebrai was fought by an army consisting chiefly of Englishmen against Normans and French. The King's brother, Robert, Edgar Atheling, and four hundred knights were taken prisoners

(ii) An English writer of the time says "Good man he was and great was the awe of him No man durst ill treat another in his time He made peace for man and beast

7 Great Men—The two most distinguished men of this reign were Anselm, Archbishop of Canterbury, and Roger, Bishop of Salisbury—both churchmen Anselm's policy strengthened and purified the Church, the work of Roger was to organise the Courts of Law and the general administration of the affairs of the whole kingdom He rose to be Justiciar and chief adviser of the King, and he did his utmost to strengthen the old Saxon organisation, and to graft upon it the customs and procedure of Norman law He brought the revenue and the laws of the kingdom into excellent order, he gave new life to the hundred-moots and the shire-moots, ordered them to meet regularly as they used to do in Saxon times, and placed at their head a sheriff, who was not an officer of the barons, but of the king Thus a certain amount of unity was introduced into the life of the kingdom, and cheap and ready justice brought to the doors of all.

(i) The Great Council or "Magnum Concilium" takes the place of the Witan (or Witenagemot) in this reign But it is no longer a meeting of "The Wise Men," but of the chief barons

(ii) The business of the country was done chiefly by the King's Court or "Curia Regis" It was a kind of standing committee of the Great Council If the King was not present, the Justiciar took his place This Court tried disputes between the chief vassals of the Crown, and also cases brought up on appeal from the Shire moots (or County Courts) Thus all the County Courts were connected with and dependent on the King's Court Justices were also sent through the country on circuit, and, in this way one system of law bound together the whole country and the king could make his power felt in every part of his dominions

(iii) The Court of Exchequer managed the accounts of the kingdom and collected the taxes. The Justiciar was the head of this Court. The Chancellor of the Exchequer (who was the King's Secretary) and the great officers of the Royal Household, also sat in it. This Court was also a kind of committee of the Great Council.

(iv) The Chancellor, later on, became the king's chief adviser, and, later still, the Treasurer, or—as he is now called—the First Lord of the Treasury.

(v) Bishop Roger of Salisbury made his son Chancellor of the Exchequer, and his nephew, the Bishop of Ely, Treasurer. Thus he was the most powerful man in the kingdom.

(vi) At first, the Justiciar was appointed only when the king was abroad. Under the Norman and early Angevin kings he was the chief adviser or Prime Minister of the king. Gradually he became more and more of a law-officer, and his name is preserved in the modern title of 'Chief-Justice.'

(vii) The Exchequer got its name from the cloth chequered like a chess board which covered the table, and on these checks the money was counted out. The Sheriffs brought up each year the taxes from each county and received in return tallies (from *taller* to cut) which were long pieces of wood notched for pounds, shillings, and pence. The stick was then split in half, one half was given to the Sheriff, the other half remained in the Exchequer, and the notches were of course the same in each. That is they *tallied*. These tallies were preserved in the Exchequer Court in London till the year 1834, and it was their dry condition that was the chief cause of the burning of the Houses of Parliament in that year.

8 Social Facts—Unlike his two predecessors, Henry did not love fighting, but only made war when he was compelled by others—and in order to secure peace, law, and order. He encouraged commerce and manufactures in every way he could. He gave a charter to London, he introduced the Flemish weavers into Wales and England, he fixed the standard of measurement (his own arm being taken as the measure of the English yard), and he ordered that taxes should be paid in money and not in kind.

(i) The Charter given to the city of London empowered it to hold the "ferm" of Middlesex at a yearly rent of £300, to carry on trade free from toll, and to elect its own sheriff and justiciar. Thus no London citizen could be tried outside the walls of the city.

(ii) Salisbury Cathedral was erected in this reign.

(iii) The first *arched* bridge in this country was built over the river Lea to the east of London by the ex-Empress Matilda. It was hence called Bow Bridge.

9 Scotland to 1124—The reign of Edgar was a reign of peace. The most important event that occurred in it was the marriage of his sister Edith, afterwards called Matilda, to Henry I in the year 1100. "It was a union between the two families which were on the way towards dividing between them the rule over the island of Britain. But, still more momentous, it was the union of the heir to the Norman Conquest with a daughter of the old Saxon race of kings." Edgar died in 1107, and was succeeded by his brother Alexander I,

commonly called "The Fierce" He was attacked by some of the powerful chieftains of the north, but succeeded in defeating them and in driving them back beyond the Moray Firth He died a natural death in 1124, and was succeeded by his younger brother David I—the third son of Malcolm Canmore who had succeeded to the Scottish throne

When Edgar died, he requested that his younger brother David should be ruler of Cumbria The purpose of this was to prevent the Normans from intruding too much upon Scotland Cumbria, at that time, separated Scotland from England on the west, and formed a kind of buffer between the two countries

SHORT CHRONOLOGY OF HENRY I's REIGN

1100 HENRY I IS CROWNED (i) He grants a Charter of Liberties (ii) He arrests Flambarð, (iii) He recalls Anselm (iv) He marries Edith (or Maud)	1119 Battle of Brenville in which Henry destroys all the hopes of William Fitz-Robert (or Clito)
1101 Robert comes to England and claims the crown. He receives a pension and withdraws	1120 Henry returns to England William the Atheling, his son and heir, is drowned
1103 Anselm has a dispute with Henry about investiture, and leaves England	1126 The Great Council (now=Witan) swears fealty to Matilda (widow of the Emperor Henry), and accepts her as "Lady of England and Normandy"
1106 Battle of Tenchebrai	1128 Matilda marries Geoffrey of Anjou.
1107 Roger of Salisbury becomes Justiciar He organises the King's Court.	1131. The Barons again swear fealty to Matilda
1109 Death of Anselm.	1133 The Barons again swear fealty to Matilda on the birth of her son (afterwards Henry II.)
1114 Henry's daughter Matilda marries Henry V Emperor of Germany	1135 Robert of Normandy dies in prison Henry himself dies
1117 Henry goes to Normandy for three years	

BATTLES AND TREATIES OF HENRY I's REIGN

1100 Henry I's Charter (i) The Church to be free, and the King not to keep sees vacant, (ii) Reliefs to be just, (iii) The laws of Edward the Confessor to be retained with the improvements made on them by William the Conqueror	1106 Battle of Tenchebrai, in which Robert is captured and his power is utterly broken.
	1107 Anselm and Henry agree about investiture (see p 78)
	1119 Battle of Brenville, in which William Clito's hopes are destroyed

IMPORTANT CONTEMPORARY EVENTS

1107 Edgar of Scotland dies, is succeeded by Alexander I	1108 Philip I of France dies, is succeeded by Louis the Fat.
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CHAPTER IV

STEPHEN AND HIS ENEMY MATILDA

Stephen born 1094 Succeeded (at the age of 41) in 1135 Died 1154
Reigned 19 years

STEPHEN was the third son of Stephen, Count of Blois His mother was
Adela, the only daughter of William the Conqueror

MATILDA was the only daughter of Henry I

CONTEMPORARY SOVEREIGNS

SCOTLAND DAVID I
 MALCOLM IV

FRANCE LOUIS VI
 LOUIS VII

1 Stephen of Blois, 1135-1154—Before the body of Henry could be carried to its grave, Stephen, regardless of his oath, had left Normandy, crossed to England, and presented himself at the gates of London. He had always been a popular man with the citizens and magistrates of London, had resided among them—in the Tower Royal (where Cheapside now stands)—and had given and accepted feasts and dinners with great good-humour and prodigality. The National Council could not be summoned, for neither baron nor bishop was present, but the aldermen called together a folk mote¹ and chose him king “for the good of the realm.” He was crowned at Westminster. In this procedure he had upon his side his brother Henry, Bishop of Winchester—whose influence in the Church was great—and also the fact that he was the nearest male heir to William the Conqueror. As usual, he gave a charter, in which he promised to respect the rights of the Church, to restore certain forest lands, and to observe “the laws and customs of the good King Edward.” The barons did not like the idea of obeying a woman, of swearing to be

¹ Meeting of the people from their wards. *Mote* comes from *meet*. A meeting in or of the ward is called a *ward-mote*. The older form of the word is seen in *Witenagemote*.

her "liege-man of life and limb", and Stephen, having seized the vast treasures amassed by Henry I, easily purchased their support. He also gave them large grants of crown-lands, sent for mercenary soldiers from Flanders and Normandy, and thought himself tolerably secure upon the throne. But the strong hand that had kept the barons down was gone, and the story of this reign is a story of civil war, of lawlessness and disorder, and of the destruction of agriculture and commerce.

(i) On the death of Henry, the English country people attacked the deer in the royal forests, and in a few days there was hardly a beast of the chase left alive.

(ii) Another reason for the dislike of the Norman barons to Matilda was the fact that they hated her husband, Geoffrey of Anjou, and still another was that she represented the system of William the Conqueror and his two sons—the object of which was to weaken the independent power of the barons. They had never allowed a baron to build a castle without a special licence.

(iii) Stephen had been made Earl of Leicester by Henry, and was the most popular baron in England. The Normans also accepted Stephen as their duke.

2 Battle of the Standard, 1138¹—King David of Scotland, the uncle of the ex-Empress Matilda, prepared to invade England in the cause of his niece. He marched south as far as Northallerton, in Yorkshire, but Thurstan, the Archbishop of York, summoning baron and freeman to his side, marched to the field to meet the enemy. He made a popular appeal to the English nationality, by calling out the farmers under the banners of their Saxon saints. Their standard was a ship mast mounted on a wagon, hung with the banners of three saints, and with a silver casket on the top, in which the archbishop had placed the consecrated wafer. Round this the Normans and English formed a ring of steel armour, bristling with battle axe and spear and sword, and against this ring the wild Scots, unarmoured and in plaid, hurled themselves time after time. The ring was impenetrable, they were utterly defeated, and the whole army fled in confusion to Carlisle.

(i) Thurstan had raised the fyrd (or militia) of the North.

(ii) The three saints whose banners hung on the mast were St John of Beverley, St Wilfrid of Ripon, and St Peter.

(iii) This battle was really won by the long bow of the English yeomen—a weapon they had learnt to ply from the South Welsh.

¹ Sir W. Scott has given a picturesque account of the battle in his "Tales of a Grandfather."

3 The landing of Matilda, 1139—Violent proceedings on the part of the King against the Bishop of Salisbury, the Justiciar of the kingdom, had lost Stephen the support of the Church, and in the midst of this quarrel, Matilda and her half-brother, Robert of Caen, the Earl of Gloucester, landed at Portsmouth. And now, for the long period of eight years, hardly a week passed in which there was not some fighting done in some part of England. After the first year of fierce and unsparring warfare, Stephen was taken prisoner at the siege of Lincoln Castle, and sent off to Bristol in chains. Now began what may be called the "Reign of Matilda," which lasted only eight months. Matilda next marched to Winchester, where Stephen's own brother, the bishop, received her, and induced the council to acknowledge her as "Lady of the English"¹. She then moved on to London, but her haughtiness and the heavy taxation she laid on the city so offended the citizens that they rose in a body against her and drove her out. The country was divided: the west supported Matilda, and London and the east were on the side of Stephen. In the course of the war the Earl of Gloucester was also taken prisoner, and he and the King were exchanged² against each other. The war now broke out more hotly than ever, Matilda was besieged in the castle of Oxford by Stephen, and she only escaped by disguising herself in a white robe and travelling on foot through the snow. She made her way to Normandy. At last, in the eighth month of the year, the Earl of Gloucester died, and Matilda, knowing that she was powerless without him, gave up the contest in 1147.

Matilda,
Lady of the
English
1141.

(1) Roger the Justiciar was still the chief adviser of the Crown, and his son was Chancellor, and his nephew the Bishop of Ely was Treasurer. These three barons (for they were barons as well as bishops) began to build themselves castles for their greater security in a time of civil war. They also came to court with long trains of soldiers and servants, as if they were great princes. Stephen took it into his head that their purpose was to make themselves independent of the Crown. He demanded the surrender of their castles. They refused. Stephen seized Roger, put him in irons, and threatened to hang his son unless the castles were given up. Roger died of a broken heart. The clergy were furious. The King's own brother, Henry, bishop of Winchester, left his party, and—being now Pope's Legate—called on the clergy to do justice without fear or favour. With the death of Roger, the laws remained in abeyance, and justice was not done in any part of the land.

¹ This title was no doubt chosen to attract the English to her side, and also to do away with the objections of the Norman barons to serve under a Queen.

² Each prisoner was set free, both being considered by the opposite sides as of equal value and rank.

(ii) The arrival of Matilda in England of course kindled a civil war, and in this war each baron had to look after himself. It was as if the country had broken up into many small separate kingdoms, the petty tyrant of each of which was at war with the others, and also always engaged in the pillage of the industrious.

(iii) The Welsh rose in many places and harried the English marches. The English are said to have tried to form a conspiracy for the massacre of the Normans.

4 The Struggle with Henry — Quarrels with the Church kept Stephen's hands full, and Matilda, seeing an opportunity for fighting, sent her son Henry to his uncle David in Scotland. He invaded England from the north, but without success. Stephen now tried to induce Archbishop Theobald to crown his son Eustace, but Theobald resolutely declined, because Eustace had not been elected or re-elected by the Great Council. Henry now landed in England, when he was joined by a number of the barons, and the war broke out afresh, and with more bitterness than ever. In the course of this war Eustace died, and Stephen and Henry came to an understanding. At a general council held at Wallingford in 1153, it was agreed that Stephen should keep the crown as long as he lived, and Henry was adopted as his son and had allegiance sworn to him as his successor.

Henry
invades
England
1153

(i) Henry had been knighted by his uncle David.

(ii) The Treaty of Wallingford arranged (a) That Stephen was to rule while he lived, but that Henry was to be his heir, (b) that the old courts and laws were to be restored, (c) that all the castles that had been built without licence were to be pulled down, and (d) that all hired soldiers were to be sent out of the country.

(iii) After this treaty, Henry stayed a short time in England and acted as the King's Justiciar.

5 The State of the Kingdom — Civil war is, of all kinds of war, the most terrible. More cruel things are done and said on both sides, and a greater shock is given to society, to industry, and to the works of peace. But, while this civil war was going on, chiefly with mercenary soldiers on both sides, the Norman barons were fighting among themselves, and in every part of the kingdom small civil wars were devastating town and country, making life hopeless and labour vain. The barons fortified their castles, and the bishops followed their example. One hundred new stone castles were built during this reign. Men of wealth were seized on the high-roads, carried off to prison, and there tortured till they gave up their property. Freebooters came over from Flanders, not to practise arts of industry as

in the time of Henry I, but to take their share in the general pillage. And, as the result of the horrors of a partisan warfare, "the neighbour could put no faith in his nearest neighbour, nor the friend in his friend, nor the brother in his own brother." Famine and disease reigned unchecked for half a generation.

(i) One account gives the number of castles as 1151

(ii) A traveller would fly when he saw a stranger on the road, the sight of two or three horsemen on the highway would send the whole population of a town to hide in their cellars, it was useless ploughing, said the farmers, "they might as well plough the sea."

(iii) The Saxon Chronicle, the last chapter of which was written in the Monastery of Peterborough, says of the barons "They took all those they thought had any goods, both by night and by day, men and women alike, and put them in prison to get their gold and silver, and tortured them with tortures unspeakable."

(iv) The Saxon Chronicle, just about its close, says of the barons "They hanged up men by their feet and smoked them with foul smoke. Some were hanged up by their thumbs, others by the head, and burning things were hung on to their feet. They put knotted strings about their head, and writhed them till they went into the brain. They put men into prisons where adders and snakes and toads were crawling, and so they tormented them."

(v) Of the hired foreign troops it says "Never yet was there such misery in the land, never did heathen men worse than they. Christ slept and all his saints. They spared neither church nor churchyard, but took all the goods that had been placed for safety there, and then burnt the church itself."

6 Death of Stephen, 1154.—In less than a year after the settlement with Henry, Stephen died at Dover, Henry was summoned from Normandy, and the first Angevin¹ or Plantagenet king ascended the throne. Stephen was a man of noble presence, a good soldier, affable and pleasant in his intercourse with every one. But he was no ruler. If a series of agreeable personal interviews could have kept men faithful to him, no king would ever have had such loyal servants. He had great force of character, but no grasp of mind, and no conception of the different forces in his country which required control or regulation. The two great powers in the kingdom—the Baronage and the Church—were either hostile or indifferent, he could attach neither to himself permanently. In one word, he was not a king, but only an able and brilliant baron. His rival Matilda erred too much on the other side. She kept every one at a distance. She was cold and haughty, and neither won nor could win the hearts of any.

¹ The adjective from *Anjou*

7 Great Men—The most distinguished men of this reign were Roger of Salisbury, Henry of Winchester, Robert of Gloucester, and Theobald, Archbishop of Canterbury. The first of these men perished in the confusions and injustices of civil war. The second, who was the brother of the King, did what he could for the peace of the realm and the prosperity of the Church of which he was a bishop. The third was a strong and able man in every sense, but he could not succeed when his sovereign was a person of so impracticable and selfish a character. Theobald was a man of strong good sense, he had been appointed Pope's Legate, and he used his influence with King Stephen to induce him to acknowledge Matilda's son Henry, who was now of age, as his successor on the throne.

8 Social Facts—There was little chance for improvement of any kind in this reign—either in arts, or in letters, or in commerce. A lawyer, Vicarius, came from the old Italian University of Bologna, and gave a course of lectures on law—the law of the Church or Canon Law, and the law relating to ordinary affairs, or Civil Law. Sugar is said to have been first imported in this reign, our ancestors had used honey before they came to know of sugar.

9 Scotland to 1153—David I began to reign in the year 1124, and his reign lasted till 1153—twenty-nine years. His relation to England is remarkable from two important points of view. In the first place, his sister Matilda (or Edith) had married Henry I. In the second place, he himself had married the heiress of the rich and powerful Wultheof, Earl of Northumberland. But, in addition to all this, he had been, since the year 1108, Earl of Huntingdon in the very heart of England. He was, on this account, in the habit of frequenting the English Court, among the other great nobles. He was also one of the nobles who had sworn allegiance to Matilda, daughter of Henry I. This oath he took as Earl of Huntingdon. When, in furtherance of Matilda's cause, he led an army into England in 1138, he no doubt had also in his mind the desirability of strengthening his hold on the Earldom of Northumberland. Another point worthy of note is that it was from the hands of David I that Henry II of England (the son of Matilda and Geoffrey of Anjou), his grand-nephew, received the honour of knighthood.—He died at Carlisle

in 1153 His son Henry, Earl of Huntingdon, had died before him, and he was succeeded by his grandson Malcolm IV

(i) "Since the year 1108 David had been Earl or Lord of the Manor of Huntingdon in England and this, which made the King of Scots an affluent English nobleman, with estates in the very heart of the dominions of the Norman Kings, had a powerful influence on the subsequent fate of Scotland It is not quite clear whether the Manor of Huntingdon was a portion of Earl Waltheof's estates assigned to David, or was given to him as compensation for Northumberland" —HILL BURTON

(ii) David I founded several bishoprics, among them Glasgow and Dunkeld, and several abbeys, the most famous of which are Holyrood, Melrose, and Dryburgh He spent so much of the crown money on the Church that he was called by one of his successors "ano s'ur sanet for the Crown", and he was often mentioned as "the sore saint"

(iii) The Kingdom of Scotland had at this time no settled boundaries either on the north or on the south On the north the Mormaor of Ross made inroads, and had to be beaten back

SHORT CHRONOLOGY AND SUMMARY OF STEPHEN'S REIGN

1135	Stephen is chosen King in London He grants a charter	1147	Death of Robert of Gloucester
1136	David of Scotland the uncle of Matilda, is defeated at the Battle of the Standard	1151	Henry, son of Matilda, becomes, by the death of his father, Count of Anjou and Duke of Normandy
1139	Stephen arrests Roger, his Justiciar Matilda lands at Portsmouth The Civil War of Succession	1152	Henry marries Eleanor of Guienne, the divorced wife of Louis VII By this marriage, he acquires Poitou, Guienne, Gascony, etc. etc
1141	Stephen is taken at the Battle of Lincoln	1153	Treaty of Wallingford
1142	Matilda is besieged at Oxford. She escapes to Normandy	1154	Death of Stephen

IMPORTANT CONTEMPORARY EVENTS

1147	Second Crusade, preached by St Bernard	1154	Nicholas Breakspear, an Englishman, is created Pope under the title of Adrian IV (He is the only Englishman who has ever worn the papal tiara)
1151	The Irish Church is organised by a bull from the Pope		

ENGLAND UNDER NORMAN RULE

1 A New Nation—With the coming in of the Normans, the condition of England and of Englishmen was entirely altered. We have, first of all, the fact that a nation of foreigners had entered the country and stood over-against the native English, and, secondly, that the warlike leader of these foreigners was the unquestioned landowner of all the land in the kingdom. The English noblemen and gentry had disappeared, and a less kindly rule than theirs had come in their place. All the untilled folk-land had become royal forest, and harsh laws were made to punish those who hunted in it. The Crown gradually became more and more strong, and the tendency was for all power to become centralised in the court and household of the king. William I put down the great earldoms, William II tried to get as much of the wealth of the Church as possible into his hands, and Henry I organised the law-courts and strengthened the administration of the law.—The Church grew under the Norman kings, in wealth, in learning, and in zeal, and in many parts of the country stately and beautiful cathedrals replaced the smaller and plainer Saxon churches.

The word *forest* has nothing necessarily to do with trees. It comes from the Latin *foras* out of doors and a *forest* is a piece of land taken out of the domain of the common law and placed entirely within the power of the King as an individual. 'The forests offered to the King a revenue, an armed force and a jurisdiction altogether outside the ever narrowing circle of his constitutional position.' The armed force consisted of foresters, beaters, drivers, stewards, woodreeves, bailiffs etc., who formed a kind of royal police.

(i) Henry I ordered that no dogs should be kept but mastiffs, and that all dogs kept for driving should have two of their toes cut off (a ring was kept by the foresters through which the dog's feet had to pass), so that they could not hunt the deer. This was called "lawing the dogs".

(ii) The great officers of the Crown were the Justiciar, who corresponded to our Prime Minister *plus* the Lord Chief-Justice, the Chancellor, who issued grants, writs, and warrants, for and from the King, the Treasurer who managed the Exchequer. These great offices were generally held by Churchmen.—In addition to these, the King's Household contained a Dispenser (or Steward), a Chamberlain, a Marshal, posts generally held by laymen—and which very soon became hereditary.

The Exchequer was so called because the table on which the moneys were counted was covered with cloth marked with squares like a chessboard and counters were placed on these squares to represent the different sums. *Tallies* were long slips of wood notched on the edges with certain marks to represent certain sums. They were then split in two and the payer and payee kept each one half which served as check upon the other.

(iii) Though William I put down the greater Earldoms, he made two new Earldoms—Chester and Shrewsbury, for the purpose of keeping and guarding the Welsh Marches.

2. Language—One effect of the introduction of Norman-French was to discourage the use of English as a language for literature. English was and always remained the *spoken* language of the people, but, as the ruling classes spoke French, and the Church employed Latin, the use of English in books became always less and less. The Anglo-Saxon Chronicle, which was written in English, still went on, and continued down to the year 1154. At the same time, the Normans imported a large number of Norman-French words, and the English people learned these of the Normans. They imported words relating to war, to feudalism, to the chase, to law, to the Church, and to cookery.

(i) The chief Norman French words relating to war are *Armour, battle, captain, mail, vizor, joint, lance*.

(ii) Those relating to feudalism are *Homage and fealty, vassal and esquire, herald and scutcheon, etc.*

(iii) The terms relating to the chase are *Brace and couple, chase and course, covert and forest, quarry and renison*.

This *quarry* is not to be confounded with *quarry* (= a stone-mine), which comes from the Low Latin *qua trare, to square*. *Quarry* here comes from the French *cœur* the heart. When the game was run down, the heart and entrails were generally thrown to the dogs.

(iv) The words relating to law are *Assize and attorney, chancellor and court, judge and justice, plaintiff and sue, etc.*

(v) The Church words are *Ceremony, friar, penance, relic, tonsure, etc.*

(vi) The terms relating to cookery are *Boil, pantry, beef, mutton, veal, pork, poultry, etc.*

When the brute lives and is in the charge of a Saxon slave she goes by her Saxon name, but becomes a Norman and is called *pork* when she is carried to the castle hall to feast among the nobles. The cooked flesh had a Norman, the uncooked animal an English name. Compare *beef* and *ox*, *veal* and *calf*, *pork* and *pig*, *mutton* and *sheep*.

3 Customs—The Normans introduced into England the habit of wearing much richer dresses of costlier materials, long curly-toed shoes from Anjou, and ornaments of gold and jewellery. They brought in also richer and more elaborate kinds of furniture, hangings, etc. The very words *curtain, chair, chamber, costume, dress, furniture, garment*, we owe to the Normans, and, along with the words, they also brought in the things. Norman names for men and women—such as Matilda, Alice, Henry, William, and suchlike—began to push out the homelier English names—Craft-guilds—clubs for the mutual support and protection of those who belonged to the same craft or occupation—began to rise in the towns, and, as peace and trade grew, these guilds also grew and prospered.

4 Population.—The population of England at this time amounted to nearly 2,000,000 souls, and, of these, it is estimated that 250,000, or one-eighth were Normans. The land was still densely wooded or

covered with swamps and morasses, and there was little room for a large population. "If one would form a just idea of England conquered by William of Normandy, he must figure to himself—not a mere change of political rule—not the triumph of one party over another,—but the intrusion of one people into the bosom of another, the violent placing of one society over another society. He must imagine two nations, of one of which William is a member and the chief—two nations which were both *subject* to William, but, in the one case, *subordinate*, in the other, *subjugated*. He must consider that there are two countries included in the same geographical circumference,—that of the Normans, rich and free, that of the Saxons, poor and serving, vexed by rent and tallage, the former full of spacious mansions, and walled and moated castles,—the latter scattered over with huts and straw and ruined hovels, that peopled with the happy and idle—with men of the army and of the court—with knights and nobles,—thus with men of pins and labour—with farmers and artisans, on the one side luxury and insolence, on the other misery and envy—not the envy of the poor at the sight of opulence they cannot reach, but the envy of the despoiled in presence of the despoilers"—THIERRY

(i) At the end of the eleventh century, there were in England 9500 tenants—military and church

(ii) Of freeholders (yeomen) there were 35 000—all to the north and east of Watling Street, and also in Kent. The more warlike habits necessary in the eastern counties, and the admixture of Danish blood, had made and kept these men independent.

(iii) Of cottars and bordars there were 90,000. Many of these had been freeholders, but, south and west of Watling Street, many of them had sunk into subjection to lords.

(iv) There were 109,000 villeins, who held small portions of land at the will of their lord, and were bound to give to him what service he demanded.

(v) There were 25,000 serfs or theows, who were the chattels or personal property of their owners.

(vi) The rest were citizens of towns (burgesses), priests, monks, etc.

(vii) The number of families in all is given at 300,000.

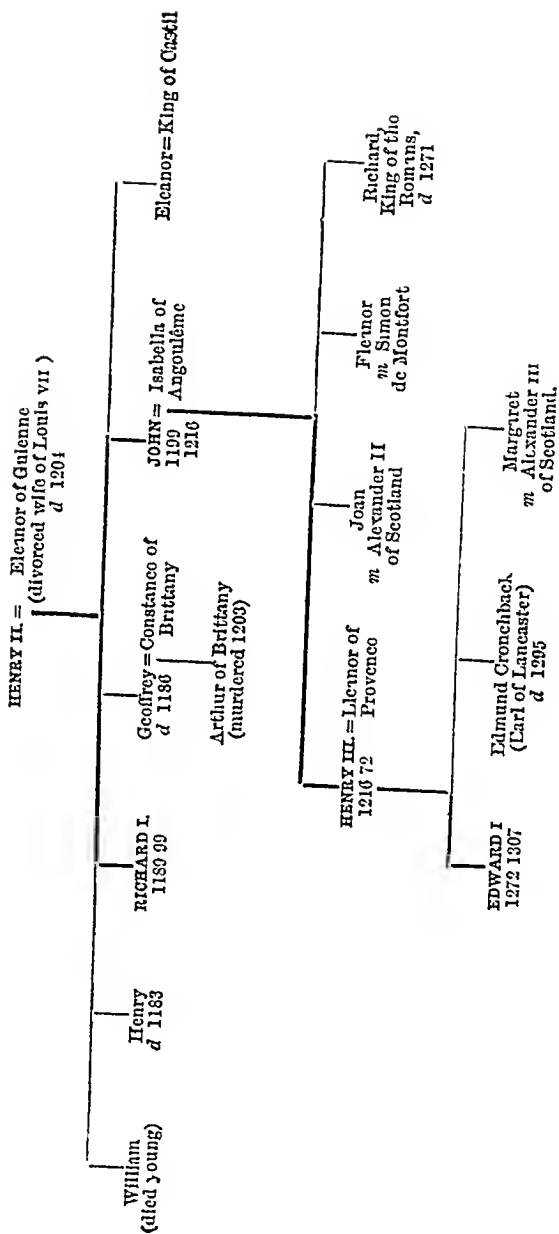


BOOK III

THE EARLIER ANGEVIN KINGS

CALLED ALSO PLANTAGENETS

ENGLISH (ANGEVIN) KINGS, FROM 1189 TO 1307



CHAPTER I

HENRY THE SECOND

Born 1133 Succeeded (at the age of 21) in 1154 Died 1189.

Reigned 35 years

HENRY II of England, the first Angevin King of this country (called also Henry Plantagenet, Curtmantle, and Fitz Empress) was the eldest son of Geoffrey, Count of Anjou, and Matilda, daughter of Henry I. He was born at Le Mans. At the age of eleven, he came to England and was educated under Robert of Gloucester, in Bristol Castle. He married Eleanor, the daughter of William, Duke of Aquitaine—and the divorced wife of Louis VII of France. "He was a tall stout man, with a short neck, and projecting but very expressive eyes, he was a careless dresser, a great hunter, and a man of business rather than a model of chivalry."

(a) Henry's great grandfather, Geoffrey Count of Anjou used to wear a sprig of broom (*planta-genet* in Lat *planta genista*) in his cap, and thus received the nickname of "Plantagenet."

(b) 'Englishmen saw in the grandson of good Queen Maud' the direct descendant of the old English line of Kings of Alfred and of Cerdic'

CONTEMPORARY SOVEREIGNS

SCOTLAND	MALCOLM IV	FRANCE	LOUIS VII	POPE	ADRIAN IV
	WILLIAM I		PHILIP AUGUSTUS		ALEXANDER III
	("the Lion")				

1 The Angevin Possessions—Henry II's ruling passion was the hunger for land, and so many additions were made to his realm by marriage or by conquest that his rule extended from the Scottish river Tweed to the French Pyrenees, and he held twice as much of France as the French king himself. He also held, before his reign had come to an end, the larger half of Ireland. He was thus by far the most powerful European king of his time. When he came over to England, the English people met him with joy, partly because peace had come again, and partly because Henry was a king

of their own blood¹ He was crowned at Westminster on the 19th of December 1154—the first king of the Plantagenet race,—a race which was destined to rule England for more than three centuries He had been well educated at Bristol by the Earl of Gloucester, and he took pleasure in the company of literary and intelligent men, he had no national prejudices, and under him the distinction between Norman and Englishman very soon died out He set to work with all his might to undo the evil effects of the conduct of Stephen and the barons He pulled down more than eleven hundred castles—most of which were only the dens of public robbers, he disbanded the mercenary troops, he annulled Stephen's reckless grants of land and money, and he appointed judges to travel at regular periods through the country administering justice and redressing wrongs



HENRY II'S POSSESSIONS IN FRANCE.

(The Provinces marked F came from his father M from his mother, and W from his wife)

third, with the rebellion of his sons and the attacks of his enemies But, through all these three periods, and along with the preoccupations of them, there ran the perpetual care and study of Henry for the reform of the law and the law arrangements of the whole kingdom

(i) Henry possessed from his father, Anjou and Touraine, from his mother, Normandy and Maine, by his wife, Poitou, Marche, Saintonge, Limousin, Guienne, and Gascony "The greatest prince of his time for wisdom, virtue, and abilities, he was also the most powerful in extent of dominion of all those that had ever filled the throne of England."

(ii) Henry's reign is easily divisible into three parts the first, which is occupied with the restoration of order, the second, with the long quarrel with Becket, the

¹ Being the grandson of Edith the wife of Henry I

(ii) Henry also compelled Malcolm, King of Scots, to give up Cumberland and Northumberland

(iv) "Henry Plantagenet was a foreign king who never spoke the English tongue, who lived and moved for the most part in a foreign camp, surrounded with a motley host of Brabançons and hurelings, and who, in intervals snatched from foreign wars, hurried for a few months to his island kingdom to carry out a policy which took little heed of the great moral forces that were at work among the people. It was under the rule of a foreigner such as this, however, that the races of conquerors and conquered in England first learned to feel that they were one"—GREEN

2 Thomas Becket, 1119 to 1170—The life of Henry II was filled chiefly with three things. the curbing of the inordinate power of the barons, the quarrels with his sons, and his long struggle with Thomas of London, or Thomas Becket. Becket is the most striking figure of this reign and of this century. He was the son of Gilbert Becket (or à Becket), the portreeve¹ of London, a rich Norman merchant. His mother was a devout and pious woman, and every year, as his birthday came round, she weighed her son against bags of money, clothes, and provisions—all of which were then given to the poor. Becket had first won the favour of Henry by having persuaded the Pope to refuse his sanction to the succession of Eustace, the son of Stephen. He was one of the best educated men of his time—tall, handsome, high-spirited, and brave. He was not the man to do things by halves. Educated at Paris, he had there been introduced to Theobald, the Archbishop of Canterbury, who made him his confidant.

(i) The story of Becket's mother being a Saracen woman is now exploded. She was Maud of Rouen, the daughter of a merchant.

(ii) Young Becket learned courtly behaviour and knightly manners in the house of Richer de L'Aigle, business in the office of Osborn Eightpenny, and classics and law in the Universities of Paris and Bologna.

3 Becket as Chancellor—Henry raised Becket to be Chancellor—the first position in the land, for the Chancellor was in fact the one minister who directed everything in the State, who had great power over the Church, and who also possessed the power of the purse. Becket was sent to negotiate the marriage of Prince Henry with Margaret the eldest daughter of the French King. On that journey he took with him as his bodyguard two hundred knights and nobles, and in his train there travelled altogether a thou-

¹ The reeve who took care of the port of London. The shirereve (or sheriff) looked after the affairs of the shire. The portreeve was the old equivalent for the more modern mayor.

sand persons, "marching through the towns of France with laden wagons and sumpter-horses, bearing coffers of money and plate, and holy vessels of his chapel, with the strange accompaniments of a monkey on each horse, whilst two hundred and fifty pages sang verses, and standards waved and esquires bore the shields of the knights, and soldiers and priests rode two and two" There was, in fact, no limit to his luxury and magnificence But in June 1162, the King, after long discussion and many entreaties, at last forced him to accept the archbishopric of Canterbury And now a great change comes upon the man He determines to serve God and the Church with as single and as zealous a mind as he had before served the King He wears a monk's frock and a haireloth shirt, he wears them day and night, never taking them off, he feeds the poor daily in his private rooms, waits upon them himself, and washes their dusty and travel-stained feet, he entertains great lords and barons in his halls, but to his own table he admits only monks Instead of the old banquet music, he has a Latin religious book read aloud, and when he is at mass, he weeps and sighs and greans in remembrance of his former sins and shortcomings

(i) As Chancellor, Becket was keeper of the King's Seal, which was attached to all Treaties and Charters, he was foreign minister, he was almoner,—or distributor of the royal alms, he filled vacant Sees in the Church, and he was the King's Counsellor in all important affairs

(ii) Becket warned the King that he would repent making him Archbishop of Canterbury, and that, as churchman, he must "put God before the King"

4 The Clergy—King Henry had appointed Thomas Becket to be archbishop, because he thought him the ablest man in the kingdom to fight the battle of the State against the too prosperous and powerful Church Henry was as anxious to curb the power of the Church as he had been to put down the tyranny of the barons There was at that time in England one law for the clergy and another for the laity, and the Church was an independent power in the country, standing over against the State and not at all in awe of it The number of persons in holy orders was enormous—almost every person who could read and write, and there were no fewer than seven orders of clergy These orders were sought for by many persons as a security against want, and as a protection against the oppressions of the lay barons Becket, as the Primate of the Church, was determined to preserve all its privileges, and even to increase its power All the materials for a

bitter quarrel between the King and the Archbishop were now ready, and a small spark set fire to the heap. A clerk accused of a crime had been arrested by the order of his bishop and brought before an ecclesiastical court. He was found guilty, but his only punishment was degradation—that is to say, the court unfrocked him.¹

Persons belonging to the order of the clergy were called *clerics* or *clerks*. Laymen were the *laicus* or *leied*.

(i) It was William the Conqueror who removed the bishops from the Shire-moots, and set up separate courts for the Church and for churchmen.

(ii) "The canons had excluded clergymen from judgments of blood, and the severest punishments they could inflict were flogging, fine, imprisonment, and degradation. It was contended that such punishments were inadequate to the suppression of the more enormous offences, and that they encouraged the perpetration of crime by insuring a species of immunity to the perpetrator. As every individual who had been admitted to the tonsure, whether he afterwards received holy orders or not, was entitled to the clerical privileges, we may concede that there were in these turbulent times many criminals among the clergy."—LIVING

(iii) It must not be forgotten that persons "admitted to the tonsure" were not priests. They had not the power of administering sacraments. They were "clerics," that is, they had been admitted to a certain rite of the Church, and were possible candidates for admission to, even though they might have no intention of taking, holy orders. As clerics, they could claim "benefit of clergy," as indeed might any one who at the time was able to read. Hence the word "clergy" meant something very different in the time of Henry II from what it means now.

(iv) "Tonsure," says Chambers's *Cyclopædia*, "is not an 'order,' but only 'a preparation for orders'."

5 The Constitutions of Clarendon, 1164—Henry called together a great council at Clarendon, near Salisbury, and his lawyers there drew up a series of articles—since known as the *Constitutions of Clarendon*—which were to regulate the relative positions of crown and crozier, of Church and State. These Constitutions settled, among other things, that "criminals of clergy" were to be handed over to lay justice and tried by ordinary law, that there was to be no appeal to Rome, that no bishop could leave the country without the consent of the King, and that the sons of serfs were not to be admitted to priest's orders without the consent of the lord of the soil. Becket at first accepted these rules, but afterwards withheld his seal from them. Then he took an oath to observe them, then he suspended himself from his office, and imposed upon himself a penance for having taken that oath. Amidst fightings within and fears without, his mind had no rest, and at last he had to flee to France, where, from a French

¹ Stripped him of his priest's gown and deprived him of the protection of ecclesiastical law as to future offences.

pulpit, he excommunicated all who should in any way abet, enforce, or obey the Constitutions of Clarendon Henry now persecuted the Cistercian monks in England, because Becket had taken refuge in a Cistercian monastery, and he also drove out of England all Becket's friends and relatives, to the number of four hundred At last it was agreed that this kind of warfare was bad for both sides, and that Henry and Becket should meet, and they met on the 22d of July 1170, near Touraine

(1) The chief articles in the Constitutions of Clarendon were —

- (a) Criminous clerks to be tried in the King's Courts
- (b) No clergyman to leave the country without the King's consent
- (c) Appeals from Ecclesiastical Courts to go to the King, and not to the Pope, unless with the King's consent
- (d) Clergy to hold their lands as tenants in chief
- (e) Sons of villeins not to be allowed to take orders without the leave of their lords

(ii) The struggle between Becket and the King went on for six years

6 The Crisis — Becket returned to England in the same year, and was met on his landing by the Kentish burgesses and the poor with glad hearts and resounding shouts of welcome. But the weary-hearted man only said, "I am come to die among you." Before returning to England he had sent letters of suspension against the Archbishop of York, and of excommunication against the Bishops of London and Salisbury, and the three prelates at once set sail for Normandy to lay their complaint before the king. Henry burst into a fit of uncontrollable rage. "Is there none of you cowards," he roared, "whom I feed at my table, who will rid me of this base, low-born priest? The fellow came to my court on a lame horse, without saddle, and now he holds the throne, and the knights who eat my bread look on!" It was resolved that the Justiciar of Normandy should be sent next day to England to arrest him, but four of Henry's nights, stung by their King's reproaches, secretly left the court, and made all haste by sea and land over to Canterbury

(1) Henry, in imitation of the French and German fashion, had had his son Henry crowned King of England during his own lifetime. The ceremony had in the absence of Becket on the Continent, been performed by Roger, Archbishop of York. But the right of crowning the Kings of England belonged to the See of Canterbury, and Becket held that Roger had stolen his right.

(ii) The names of the four knights were Reginald Fitz-Urse, William De Tracy, Hugh de Moreville, and Richard le Breton. They were allowed to atone for their deed by a pilgrimage to Palestine, where they all died.

7 The Murder of Becket—On the 29th December 1170 they rode up to the Cathedral. On their way they met Becket, and urged him to take off the excommunication, he refused. They followed him into the Cathedral, seized and tried to carry him off. He resisted, they lost their self-command, all four attacked him with their swords, and the Archbishop of Canterbury lay dead in front of the high altar of his own Cathedral.

Becket
murdered
1170

(i) When his monks saw a shirt of the coarsest haircloth which he wore beneath his splendid robes, and the marks of the stripes left by his daily penance, they proclaimed him a martyr, and, not long after, a saint.

(ii) "All Christendom had been watching the strife all Christendom was outraged at its close. The Pope shut himself up for eight days, and refused to speak to his own servants."

(iii) The dead body of the saint began to work miracles and the shrine of St. Thomas became the most famous in England. He was "the holy blissful martyr," and the touch of one of his bones wrought miraculous cures. The King issued an order prohibiting the miracles but he might as well have forbidden the stars to rise.

8 The Results of Becket's Death—A thrill of indignation ran through Christendom at this brutal murder, Henry was horror-struck, and in daily fear of excommunication,¹ pilgrimages were made to Becket's tomb, miracles were said to be wrought there, and St. Thomas became at once the most popular of all the English saints. Henry cleared himself to the Pope of the charge of being an accomplice, but very bitter troubles were in store for him. In 1173, his three sons, incited by the King of France and their own mother Eleanor, rebelled against him, and the league was joined by France, Flanders, and Scotland. Henry, "the Younger King," as he was called, demanded the realm of England, for which he had been crowned, Richard, who was governor of Aquitaine,² and Geoffrey, Duke of Brittany, raised armies in Normandy and Aquitaine, while several barons rose in Yorkshire, the Midland Shires, and the Eastern Counties. Henry was terribly alarmed. The guilt of Becket's murder still weighed heavy on his

League
against
Henry

1173.

¹ This would have freed all his barons, prelates and others from their allegiance and have given a right everywhere to all dissatisfied persons to rise against him.

² The country between the Garonne and the Pyrenees.

conscience, and his first act, before taking up arms, was to pay a pilgrimage to the shrine of the murdered Archbishop. On the 8th of July 1174, he crossed from Normandy and landed at Southampton.

(i) Henry publicly declared in the Cathedral of Avranches, that the death of the primate had not been ordered by him and that it had caused him deeper grief than the death of his own mother.

(ii) The young Henry wished to be the real, and not merely the titular King of England during his father's life, or—if that was impossible—to be Duke of Normandy, and was angry because his father would not hear of it. The two younger also wished independent domains of their own, and their mother, Eleanor, who had been greatly neglected and even insulted by Henry, spurred her sons on in their course of disobedience and rebellion. The barons, who hated the firm rule and good law of Henry, hoped to get a king who would allow them to do what they liked in their own lands and with their own people.

9 The Penance of Henry—From Southampton he rode all night into Kent, with no refreshment but bread and water. When the grey towers of the Cathedral first met his eyes in the early dawn, he at once alighted from his horse, and walked with downcast looks and in penitential garb, barefoot, to the city. He knelt at the tomb of his old friend and foe, in the deepest sorrow and humiliation. Then the great king, before the assembled monks and chapter, poured forth his contrition for the passionate utterance which his knights had too hastily interpreted, and submitted to be publicly scourged in expiation of his sin. He spent the night in the dark crypt,¹ and the next day he rode fasting into London. A fever followed, but he was cured of it in a few days by good news. For he was told that his powerful enemy, William the Lion, king of Scotland, had been surprised and taken prisoner by his justiciar, Ranulf de Glanville, and upon this the English rebel barons gave up their attempt. Henry himself soon raised the siege of Rouen, and put down the rebel forces both in England and in Normandy.

(i) Henry was scourged by eighty ecclesiastics: the bishops gave each five strokes, and the monks three.

(ii) On the very day on which Henry was undergoing this penance, Ranulf de Glanville captured William the Lion of Scotland. A messenger from Ranulf came to the King with the news. "Is it true?" cried Henry. "Yes, sire, by my faith." "Then God be thanked, and St. Thomas the Martyr!" The King gave the messenger his riding switch and told him that "ten farms went with it as a reward for his good tidings."

¹ A dark secret place under the floor of the Cathedral.

10 **The Conquest of Ireland**—Henry had obtained in 1154 a Bull¹ from the Pope giving him permission to make himself lord of Ireland. The Pope of the time was Adrian IV, or Nicholas Breakspear, the only Englishman who has ever sat upon the papal throne. The Pope's pretence was that the Irish people were ignorant of the Christian faith. The fact was just the reverse, for Ireland had received Christianity while the English and Norsemen were still heathens, and from Ireland missionaries had gone out in all directions to other countries. Ireland had long been a shelter for pious and learned men when Britain was overrun by Saxon, Dane, and Norseman. But the Norsemen had invaded Ireland also, and had founded small kingdoms in Dublin, Wexford, and Coik. The rest of the country was ruled by petty chiefs,—among whom were five who called themselves kings. The overlord of these kings was called an *Ardriach*. Now Dermot, king of Leinster, had been driven from his dominions by the *Ardriach*, and in order to recover his kingdom he fled to Normandy, and made Henry an offer of vassalage. Henry could not at that time go to Ireland himself to reinstate him on his throne, but he gave him leave to make what offers he pleased to his knights. Richard Strongbow, Earl of Pembroke, and two Norman gentlemen from Wales, Robert Fitz-Stephen and Maurice Fitz-Gerald, were very glad of the opportunity. They raised a small army, sailed across the Channel, and everywhere beat the Irish, who were without armour and had very inferior weapons. On the death of Dermot, Strongbow, who had married his daughter Eva, became king, but this Henry was not prepared to permit. He therefore sailed over to Ireland in 1171, and was received as Overlord of all Ireland, and even the *Ardriach* attended his court and acknowledged himself as his vassal. But neither Henry nor any Plantagenet after him ever really ruled Ireland, which remained for centuries in utter disorder—the battlefield of petty chiefs and kings and Norman barons, the home of quarrels and of fighting, with little hope or chance of quiet industry, except in the seaports and the fringe of coast in their immediate neighbourhood.

Henry
Overlord
of Ireland
1171.

Ardriach means Head King

¹ A paper signed by the Pope and sealed with his Bulla or great seal. The bulla was the piece of lead which bore the papal seal and which was attached to the paper or parchment. We have the same word in *bulletin*.

(i) Another statement is that the Pope claimed to have full jurisdiction and dominion over all islands as part of the papal domains

(ii) Henry was to rule Ireland on condition of paying Rome Scot—that is, a penny a year on each house

Scot here as in the phrase *scot free*, means a piece of money The literal sense is that of *contribution*—what is *shot* into the general fund

(iii) The Norsemen were called *Ost men* in Ireland, because they came from the east

(iv) The five Irish kingdoms were Ulster, Leinster, Meath, Connaught, and Munster

(v) John Lackland was sent over to rule, but his government was not a success He had the title of "Lord of Ireland" It was Henry VIII who first took the title of "King of Ireland"

11 The Death of Henry—In 1188, Richard, the second son of the king, made his way to the court of Philip Augustus, the new king of France, and joined with him in an attack upon his father's dominions Their allied forces suddenly appeared before Le Mans, and Henry, surprised and unprepared, had to flee hurriedly before his own son into Normandy The town, his birthplace, was burned down before his eyes, and he mourned bitterly over it as he rode along the crest of the hills which overhang the valley He was driven from Touraine, one after another his French towns were lost to him, and soon after he was obliged to sue for peace from the French king At the conclusion of peace he asked to see the list of barons who had rebelled against him, and whom he was obliged to pardon At the head of the list stood "John, Count of Mortagne,"—his favourite son, his dearest child, and his most intimate confidant Turning his face to the wall, he exclaimed, "Let the rest go as it will! I care no more for myself or anything in all the world!" He was borne to the Castle of Chinon, on the 1189 quiet waters of the Vienne, he never lifted his head again, and died muttering the melancholy self-reproach, "Shame, shame on a conquered king!" He died in 1189

Another account says that his last words were "Cursed be the day on which I was born, and cursed of God the children I leave behind me"

12 Henry's Character—Henry did two great services for England he broke the power of the barons, and he initiated the reign of law He brought the protection of law down to the poorest person He dispensed with the services of his barons in the field, by compelling them to make a money payment instead, and with the money he hired mercenary soldiers He was one of the hardest

working men in England, and one of the best business men too "He never sits down, he is always on his legs from morning to night," said one who knew him, altogether a restless, eager, active, rough, busy, and passionate man. There were times when his fiery southern nature broke out, and then he became "a lion, and more ferocious than a lion." On one of these occasions, when a friend was trying to justify the conduct of the King of Scots, Henry shouted that he was a traitor, pulled off his sword, tore off his clothes, and threw himself on the ground, rolling, and biting, and snapping at the straw and rushes upon the floor. But, in general, he kept this demoniac temper under complete control, and most of his actions showed him to be a prudent, thoughtful, and sagacious statesman.

13 Scutage—According to the feudal system, every man who held land from the king was obliged to follow his king to the wars, and to take with him a certain number of his sub-vassals, in proportion to the size of his holding. But, when agriculture had grown prosperous—when many men were needed to sow the ground and to reap the harvests, absence on a military expedition in Normandy or in France became a serious affair. Henry, therefore, at 1159 the very beginning of his reign, brought back the old English custom of paying a fine when any man could not follow his baron or his king to the wars. But this custom, which was formerly regarded as a punishment, was now looked on as a favour, and the vassal who preferred staying at home and working on his farm could free himself by the payment of a sum of money, in proportion to the amount of land he held. This money was called *Scutage*, and, while it freed his English subjects, it enabled Henry to raise hired troops to fight for him in France. In this way also, he decreased the military power of the barons, and drew closer the bonds of connection between the sub-vassals and the Crown.

(i) By means of *Scutage* (or, as it was called in Norman French, *escuage*), the barons had fewer soldiers to follow them, and fewer opportunities of training their sub-vassals to war. (Lat. *scutum*, a shield.)

(ii) In 1181 a regulation called the *Assize of Arms* was issued for the Fyrd or National Militia. (The Fyrd could not be ordered abroad.) It ordered each freeman according to his rank to appear in arms before the Judges of Assize once a year.

(a) The knight or squire had to appear in helmet, mail-coat, shield and lance.

(b) The yeoman in hauberk, iron headpiece and lance.

(c) The burgher and artisan in padded coat, headpiece and lance.

14 Henry's Law-Reforms—During the whole of his reign, troubled as it was with quarrels, disputes, and rebellions of every kind, Henry worked hard and steadily at his self-imposed task of reforming the law and the administration of the law. He never halted for a moment in this task. In 1166 he began the practice

Reform of
County
Courts of sending two judges from the King's Court (the Curia Regis) to preside in the Shire Moots (or County Courts)

1166 These judges not merely collected taxes, they also sat to judge cases, and in this way the whole of the County Courts throughout the realm were brought into connection with the central King's Court. He at the same time began a kind of trial by jury. In

1170, Henry dismissed, all at the same time and by the same proclamation, the sheriffs of the counties from their offices, and put in their places new sheriffs chosen from among the officers of the

Henry
dismisses all
the sheriffs Eveschequer. In this way the Crown gained greater power in every shire, the administration of justice was more

1170 uniform throughout the country, and the kingdom was bound together in a closer unity. The power, too, of the barons was greatly diminished, as they were no longer sheriffs, and their places had been taken by King's officers. In 1176, the kingdom

Justices in
Eyre was divided into six circuits, three travelling justices

1176 were appointed to each, and thus suitors were spared the time, trouble, and expense of attending at the King's Court in London. These travelling judges were called Justices in Eyre.

Again, in 1178, a selection of five judges was made from the King's Court, to hear cases both criminal and civil, and out of this selection were afterwards developed the Court of King's Bench and the Court of Common Pleas. Thus England became one country, under one uniform government.

In Eyre = Lat in itinere on a journey

(1) Henry was in the habit of issuing from time to time short codes or lists of rules, which he called *Assizes*. In one of these he ordered each sheriff to name four knights, who were again to choose twelve men in the neighbourhood to give evidence on trials. These men took an oath to speak the truth, and were hence called *jurors* (from the Lat *juror*, I swear).

(2) Another assize ordered that twelve jurors from each hundred and four from each township should bring to trial before the King's judges all persons who were believed to be guilty of a crime. This was called *Presentment by Jury*. These sixteen men formed a kind of Grand Jury.

(iii) "The great local noble who had lorded it as he chose over the suitors of the Court for fifteen years, and fixed and taxed and forfeited as seemed good to him, suddenly, without a moment's warning, saw his place filled by a stranger, a mere clerk trained in the Court among the royal servants, a simple nominee of the king he could no longer doubt that the royal supremacy was now without rival, without limit, irresistible, complete"—GARRA

(iv) Henry was constantly travelling to see things with his own eyes "A new sense of law and justice grew up under a sovereign who himself journeyed through the length and breadth of the land, subduing the unruly, hearing pleas, revising unjust sentences, drawing up charters with his own hand, setting the machinery of government to work from end to end of England."

(v) In the first eight years of his reign, Henry was only twice in England, and each time for little more than a year. In the eighteen years from 1162 to 1180, he was only eight years altogether in this country. "Had the Plantagenets, as at one time seemed likely, succeeded in uniting all France under their government, it is probable that England would never have had an independent existence. Her princes, her lords, her prelates, would have been men differing in race and language from the artisans and tillers of the earth. The revenues of her great proprietors would have been spent in festivities and diversions on the banks of the Seine. The noble language of Milton and Burke would have remained a rustic dialect, without a literature, a fixed grammar, or a fixed orthography, and would have been contemptuously abandoned to the use of bores. No man of English extraction would have risen to eminence, except by becoming in speech and habits a Frenchman"—MACAULAY

(vi) The Norman and English were rapidly becoming one people by intermarriage. Though French was the Court language, and Latin the language of law and of learned men, English was the language of by far the larger majority of the people—whether gentle or simple.

15 Great Men.—The great men of this reign, over and above Henry himself, who was among the very greatest, are Archbishop Theobald, Thomas Becket, Richard de Lucy, and Ranulf de Glanville. The two first were churchmen, and Becket more especially strove his utmost and eventually gave his life to preserve to the Church its power and ancient privileges—Richard de Lucy, for twenty-five years Justiciar of the kingdom, was a skilful lawyer, and carried out with great ability and zeal the law-reforms of his sovereign. After his death this task was carried on by his able successor Glanville.

Henry worked at everything himself. Even when abroad in Normandy or in Guienne, fighting or making treaties, he was always thinking of reforms in English law.

16 Social Facts.—Commerce grew and developed very much in this reign. The Crusades had the effect of introducing much more frequent intercourse between the East and the West, and trade gained

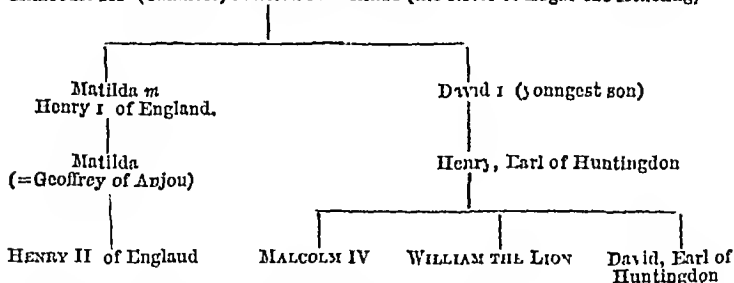
enormously by this intercourse. The spices, rich cloths and hangings, the gold and gems, of the East were exchanged for the tin, lead, oysters, fish, wool and cloths of England — London became the capital of England, instead of Winchester, London Bridge was partly rebuilt of stone, and, as London stands at the head of all the waterways of the world, it was destined both to give to and to receive from the growing commerce of the country increase and healthy development.

Glass was first used for windows in private houses in 1177

17 Scotland to 1165 — David I was succeeded by his grandson Malcolm IV, a boy of not quite twelve years of age. Malcolm was cousin to Henry II of England, and to the English monarch he gave up his claim to Northumberland and to that part of Cumbria which lay to the south of the Solway. On the other hand, Henry solemnly reinvested him in the honour and earldom of Huntingdon, and the youthful Malcolm followed his great cousin in his Continental wars. Malcolm died in 1165, at the early age of twenty-four.

(i) The following table shows the relation of the two kings

MALCOLM III (Canmore) married MARGARET (the sister of Edgar the Atheling)



(ii) WILLIAM I (the Lion) was succeeded (1214) by his son, Alexander II, and then by his grandson Alexander III (1249)

SHORT CHRONOLOGY AND SUMMARY OF HENRY II's REIGN

- | | |
|---|---|
| <p>1154. Henry II. is crowned, and issues a Charter Thomas Becket is made Chancellor</p> <p>1157 Henry forces Malcolm, king of Scots to give up the three northern counties</p> <p>1159 Scutage first established</p> <p>1162. Thomas Becket elected Archbishop of Canterbury He resigns the Chancellorship</p> <p>1163 A dispute arises about criminal clerks</p> <p>1164. THE CONSTITUTIONS OF CLARENDON are drawn up Becket leaves the kingdom Quarrel goes on for six years</p> <p>1170 (i) Henry removes all the Sheriffs, and makes an inquiry into their accounts Henry, the king's son is crowned by Roger, Archbishop of York</p> <p>(ii) Becket is murdered.</p> <p>1171. Henry goes to Ireland</p> | <p>1173 League against Henry by his three eldest sons, the King of France, the King of Scotland, the Norman barons, etc</p> <p>1174. Henry does penance at the tomb of Becket. The rebellious barons are conquered Danegelt ceases to be collected</p> <p>1177 John Lackland is named "Lord of Ireland"</p> <p>1188 The Saladin Tithe This is the first tax in England on personal property</p> <p>1189 Death of Henry II</p> <p>(i) Saladin had united the small Turkish States into one great dominion which stretched from the Euphrates to the Nile and had taken Jerusalem</p> <p>(ii) The Saladin Tithe amounted to one-tenth of all the goods and personal property of each subject.</p> <p>(iii) All previous taxes had been laid upon land</p> |
|---|---|

IMPORTANT CONTEMPORARY EVENTS

- | | |
|--|--|
| <p>1154. Nicholas Breakspere, an Englishman, becomes Pope with the title of Adrian IV</p> <p>1156 Adrian IV issues a Bull empowering Henry II to subdue Ireland</p> <p>1165 Malcolm of Scotland is killed He is succeeded by William the Lion.</p> | <p>1166 Henry's third son, Geoffrey, marries Constance heiress of Brittany</p> <p>1169 Richard Strongbow and other Normans land in Ireland</p> <p>1180 Death of Louis VII of France He is succeeded by Philip Augustus</p> <p>1187 Saladin takes Jerusalem</p> |
|--|--|

IMPORTANT ACTS OF GOVERNMENT

- | | |
|---|---|
| <p>1164 The Constitutions of Clarendon.</p> <p>1166 The Assize of Clarendon arranges for the administration of justice in the provinces</p> | <p>1176 The Assize of Northampton sends out justices on circuit</p> <p>1178 Five judges are selected from the Curia Regis "to hear all suits brought before the King"</p> |
|---|---|

(i) The Assize of Clarendon arranged for a general visitation of England by two justices

(ii) Out of the five judges selected from the Curia Regis grew the Court of King's Bench and the Court of Common Pleas

CHAPTER II

RICHARD THE FIRST

(OF AQUITAINE)

Born 1157 Succeeded (at the age of 32) in 1189 Died 1199
Reigned 10 Years

RICHARD of AQUITAINE (called also the Lion and the Lion Heart, or Cœur de Lion) was the third son of Henry II and Eleanor of Aquitaine. He was born at Oxford in 1157. At the age of eleven he was made Duke of Aquitaine by his father. He married Berengaria of Navarre at Cyprus, on his way to the Holy Land. They had no children.

CONTEMPORARY SOVEREIGNS

SCOTLAND WILLIAM I (the Lion) FRANCE PHILIP II (Augustus)

1 Richard I, 1189-1199 —Immediately after the funeral of his father, Richard left France, sailed to England, and was crowned King at Westminster without opposition. His reign—if reign it can be called, for he spent in England only six months out of the ten years during which he held the throne—falls easily into two almost equal divisions: his absence on the Third Crusade and his captivity, and his prolonged wars against his old friend and enemy, Philip II of France. For England itself he had little care and no policy.

(1) Richard was called Richard of Aquitaine, because he had been made ruler of that duchy by his father in his lifetime, and he received the nickname of *Cœur-de-Lion*, because of his enormous strength and dauntless courage in battle. He was not only a warrior,—he was a poet, and he sang and wrote lyrical songs in the soft southern language of Oc.¹

¹ Called *Langue d'Oc* because the word for *yes* was *oc* (from the Latin *hoc* this) whereas in the North the word was *oui* (now *oui* from the Latin *illud* that). The language was also called *Provençal* (from *provincia* in Southern France, which was called by the Romans *Provincia*) and it was a kind of transformed Latin.

(ii) A full account was drawn up of the formalities and ceremonies observed at his coronation, and this has been always observed as the model for all after coronations at Westminster

↘ (iii) The Jews, who were the bankers—and also the usurers—of England, lived as a separate people in quarters of several English towns called Jewries, governed by their own laws and under the immediate protection of the king. On the coronation day some of the Jewish elders brought rich gifts to the king. No Jew or woman was allowed within the Abbey for fear of witchcraft, but these poor elders were hustled and thrust by the crowd inside the doors. The king's servants drove them out, the mob fell upon them, a cry arose that the king had commanded all Jews to be slain, and the crowd rushed off to the Jewry to plunder, to slay, and to burn. The rumour spread. At York, the rich Jews took refuge with their treasures in the Castle, and, when they saw they could hold out no longer, they put their wives and children to death, and last of all slew themselves.

↘ 2 Money wanted —His first thought after his coronation was to join the Third Crusade, and how to raise money for that expedition. He sold everything he could lay his hands upon, he sold the churchlands, crown-lands, and offices of State, he sold half the honours and dignities of the kingdom—sheriffdoms and justiceships—to the highest bidders, he levied heavy taxes, and wrung large sums from individual barons to appease a pretended anger, and he “would have sold London itself,” he said, “if he could have found a purchaser.” The king appointed a Norman called William of Longchamp, Bishop of Ely, to be justiciar and regent during his absence. Longchamp was a man after his own heart, hesitated at no measure, drew back from no course to gain his ends and to raise money for his hungry master.

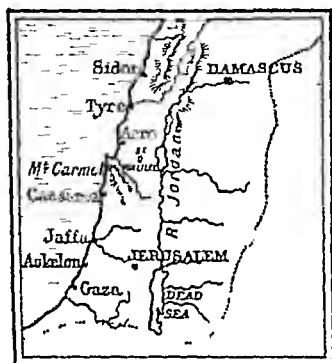
↘ (i) He sold to William the Lion his right of superiority over the crown of Scotland for 10,000 marks, and thus released William from vassalage to England. He sold the Earldom of Durham to the Bishop of Durham, Hugh de Puiset (or Pudsey), for the same sum, and thus turned “an old bishop into a young earl.” William of Longchamp, bishop of Ely, bought the Chancellorship of the kingdom for £3000.

(ii) The regency of the kingdom, during the absence of Richard, was vested in Longchamp and Hugh of Durham. Longchamp was not only Chancellor and Justiciar of the kingdom, but he had been created Papal Legate.

3 The Third Crusade, 1189 —Richard solemnly assumed the scrip and staff of a pilgrim in the cathedral of Canterbury, and met Philip Augustus, king of France, on the plains of Vezelai in Burgundy. Their united forces amounted to one hundred thousand men.

Instead of sailing direct to Palestine, the two kings spent the winter in Sicily, where they and their nobles and their men were continually quarrelling. Philip felt jealous of a vassal—for Richard was Philip's vassal for some of his French lands—more brilliant and more powerful than himself, and was also angry with him for not having kept his engagement with his sister Alice. Richard had in the meantime fallen in love with Berengaria of Navarre, a gentle fair-haired maiden, and had sent his mother, Queen Eleanor, to bring her over to him in Sicily.—The siege of Acre¹ had been going on for two years, with little prospect of success, but

Richard, on his arrival, pressed on the work with unusual vigour, in spite of severe illness, and in a few days the place was taken. Richard, greedy of glory, took all the credit to himself, and when the Duke of Austria, who had captured one of the towers, hoisted his banner upon it, Richard tore it down with a great oath, and flung it into the ditch.—The king of France now took it into his head to return home. He said he was ill,



and he swore to Richard an oath—which he did not keep, and did not intend to keep—to do nothing to the hurt of Richard's interests in France. After prodigies of valour on both sides, Richard, weakened by fever, had to give up the thought of taking Jerusalem, and to make a three years' truce with Saladin—the Saracen Emperor. He wept bitter tears at this disappointment, and, when within sight of the Holy City, covered his face with his mantle, that he might not see the place which God had forbidden him to enter.

(i) Berengaria was the daughter of Sancho, king of Navarre.

(ii) When Philip II got back to France, he set to work to conspire with John for an attack on Richard's French dominions.

4. Richard's Return.—Richard now set out for Europe with one vessel. He was afraid to travel through France, so he disguised himself as a merchant, and made his way through Austria. But the

¹ In the Levant, the eastern shore of the Mediterranean.

foreign gold he carried with him betrayed him, and he fell into the hands of the man whom he had so cruelly insulted at Acre—Leopold, Duke of Austria. By him he was sold to Henry VI, the Emperor of Germany, for £60,000, and Henry imprisoned Richard in a castle in the Tyrol. In 1193 he was brought before a Diet¹ (or Council) of the Empire, which met at Worms,² and arraigned on four charges. The chief of these was that he had hired assassins to murder Conrad, Marquis of Montferrat, one of the rival kings of Jerusalem. Richard pleaded his own cause with great eloquence, and was acquitted by the princes of the empire, but Henry detained him until England should forward a large ransom. So heavy was the ransom, that every man in England had to give a fourth of his income. Everything that could be sold had to be turned into money, the fleece was shorn off every sheep, and even the sacred vessels of the churches were sold or placed in pawn. The ransom was 150,000 marks. At last Richard landed at Sandwich in 1194, after an absence of four years and an imprisonment of fourteen months. He walked barefoot from Sandwich to Canterbury, to return thanks to God for his great deliverance, and, to wash off the stain of his imprisonment, he was crowned a second time at Winchester.

Richard in
England
1194.

(i) As soon as his brother John heard the news of Richard's imprisonment, he did homage to Philip for the duchy of Normandy.

(ii) The pretty story of Blondel is, unfortunately, untrue. He is said to have wandered over Europe with a lute, playing the songs which his master had composed, under the grated window of every castle, until his master's voice replied.

(iii) Every man, clerk or layman, was taxed to the extent of one fourth of his rents and his movable property, each knight had to pay an additional sum as scutage, and even the silver vessels were taken out of the churches.

5 Longchamp's Regency—Longchamp was a hard and far from just ruler, but he applied the laws impartially to bishop and priest, to baron and serf. But this impartial rule was detested by the barons, John Lackland joined with his half-brother, Geoffrey Fitz-Peter, to get rid of Longchamp, and a meeting of the earls and barons of the kingdom was called, at which Longchamp was deposed from his office. He retired to Normandy in 1191. A new Justiciar

¹ From the Latin *dies* a day and called so because their meetings at first only lasted for one day.

² Worms—a town in the Rhine valley south of Mayence. Here Luther, in 1521 was summoned to appear before Charles V, Emperor of Germany, at a Diet of the German Empire since called the Diet of Worms.

of the realm was appointed. John, who had been treacherous to his father, was also treacherous to his brother, and, upon the news of Richard's captivity in Austria, John declared he was dead, and laid claim to the crown of England

(i) Longchamp offended the barons in many ways. Being supreme both in Church and State—as Papal Legate and as Justiciar—he travelled about in royal pomp with a train of 1500 men, a band of minstrels, and a body of personal attendants consisting of nobles and gentlemen. As Justiciar and as Legate, he placed double taxes on the religious houses and, for this and other reasons, he came to be universally detested. John's aim was to come forward as protector of the nation against this tyranny.

(ii) The new Justiciar was Walter, Archbishop of Ronen.

6 Hubert Walter's Regency—From the year 1194 to 1198 the kingdom was governed, during Richard's absence, by Hubert Walter, the Archbishop of Canterbury. Hubert had been secretary to Henry II, and he earnestly carried out the policy of that great king in legislation, as well as in finance. But, while engaged in raising money and in seeing to the proper administration of justice, he did a great deal to train the English people to habits and methods of self-government. He showed them how to assess the taxes of each district by jury, and he taught them how to choose representative knights for the transaction of judicial affairs. In this way he laid the foundations of representative government.

(i) One of his measures was distinctly unjust. He laid a poll tax upon the people of London, and this poll tax, which was nothing to a rich man, pressed with fearful severity on the craftsmen and the poor. The citizens, led by Fitz Osbert, or Longbeard, resisted this tax, and held that each man should pay his share of the taxation according to his means.

(ii) Hubert sent a force to arrest Fitz Osbert, but he fled to the Church of St. Mary-le-Bow for sanctuary. Hubert set fire to the church, seized him as he tried to escape, and hanged him with nine of his followers.

7 Death of Richard, 1199—Richard, on his return, forgave his brother John, but at once made ready to wage war with his faithless ally, the King of France. After a stay of only two months, he left his realm of England, never to return. The two kings "played at castle-taking." Philip was twice defeated—at Fretterval and at Gisors. At the battle of Gisors in 1198, Richard gave as the watchword of the day, "GOD AND MY RIGHT,"¹ and this has remained ever since the motto of the English Crown. Soon after,

¹ He gave it in French, of course—*Dieu et mon droit*.

Richard met his death. One of his vassal lords had found a treasure at Lamoges, and Richard claimed it as the feudal superior. The vassal refused to give it up, and Richard besieged his castle of Chalus Chabrol. He led the attack in person, and had fought his way into the inner court, when an arrow from the bow of Bertrand de Gourdon pierced his left shoulder. The knife of an unskilful surgeon caused the wound to mortify, and Richard lay for twelve days on his deathbed. He had the whole garrison hanged, with the exception of de Gourdon. "What harm did I ever do you?" said the king. The young archer replied that his father and two brothers had fallen by Richard's hand, and challenged him to take any revenge he pleased. "I forgive you my death, and you are free,"¹ was the answer of the king, and he ordered him to be presented with a hundred shillings. By his mother's desire, he named his brother John his successor. His body was buried at the foot of his father's tomb at Fontevraud, and his heart was sent, by his own express wish, to Rouen—a town for which he always felt a strong affection.

Richard
mortally
wounded
1199.

(i) From 1194 to 1198, while Richard was fighting in France, England was governed by Hubert Walter, Archbishop of Canterbury, who—like Longchamp—was both Legate and Justiciar, and who carried out the legal and financial reform of Henry II.

(ii) To support his wars, Richard taxed in every way his officers could devise his already impoverished country of England. About £1,100,000 sterling was sent to the king in two years, and "England was reduced to poverty from sea to sea"—Among other mean devices, Richard had the Great Seal broken and a new one made. He then proclaimed that no grant under the old seal was valid in England, and thus all holders of grants of land were compelled to come to the office of the Chancellor and pay their fees a second time.

(iii) The treasure found by Richard's vassal was reported to consist of "a golden emperor and all his court sitting at a golden table." It was most probably a large golden chess-table with the pieces in gold.

8 Richard's Character—"Richard was, physically, the strongest of living men, and he was also physically the most inaccessible to fear. He had all the indomitable and limitless will of the race of Rollo. He was the genuine type of a feudal knight." He was tall, well-built and muscular, of a ruddy complexion, and with light brown hair. He was a brave soldier, a good general, and a skilful engineer,

¹ The leader of his mercenary troops Marchindee (or in French, Merchadé), had him put to death in the most cruel manner.

but he was more of a knight-errant than of a ruler of men. He died in his forty-second year. He had reigned nearly ten years, but he had passed only six months of these years in England. His brother John was acknowledged king in England and Normandy, but Anjou, Maine, and Touraine did homage to Arthur, the son of his elder brother Geoffrey, the late Duke of Brittany.

9 Great Men—The most distinguished men during this reign were William of Longchamp, Hugh of Avalon, Hubert Walter, and Geoffrey Fitz-Peter. Three of these men administered the affairs of the kingdom, in the absence of their sovereign, with great ability, and generally on the lines clearly and firmly laid down by Henry II. But, though never intrusted with the rule of the kingdom, the greatest of them all was Hugh of Avalon, Bishop of Lincoln, who was called St. Hugh after his death. It fell to the lot of this simple and good man to resist the exactions of his king, and nobly he rose to the occasion. Hubert Walter, Archbishop of Canterbury, who was both Justiciar and Legate from 1194 to 1198, proposed to the barons and bishops that they should maintain for the king, during his wars in France, a force of three hundred knights, who were to be paid a sum of three shillings a day. Hugh of Lincoln refused his assent. The estates of the Church, he said, were bound to afford the king military service within the four seas, but not beyond them, and he for his part would not pay a single shilling. "I will go away," he added, "and be a hermit once more, rather than lay this new burden on the bishopric committed to my charge." And the "Great Council," in which this proposal was brought forward, followed the lead of the brave bishop. This is the first real instance of successful resistance to illegal taxation in our history, and in this manner did St. Hugh lay one of the four corner stones of English liberty.

10 Social Facts—There is not much to chronicle in this reign in regard to social progress. The need felt by Richard for money to enable him to go on crusade compelled him to grant charters to boroughs in exchange for sums of various amount, thus the commercial classes rose into greater importance, and London, among other towns, purchased several new "liberties." The *communa* or corporation of London was recognised in law, and the Portreeve

PLAN OF DATES
TWELFTH CENTURY

1100 Anselm killed in Forest. HENRY I marries Matilda of Malcolm of	1101 Robert claims the crown. Is pensioned and goes	1102	1103 Anselm has a dispute about investiture and leaves England	1104
1110			William the	
1111	1112	1113	1121 Henry marries Adela of Louvain.	
1114 marries Henry V Emperor of Germany	1115	1116	1224	
1117 goes to Normandy three years to fight at France Anjou, landers	1118 Battle of Brenville William Clito is killed	1119	1127	Matilda of
1140				
1141 John of Lincoln, then taken.	1142 Matilda besieged at Oxford.	1143	1151 Henry becomes by the death of his father Count of Anjou and Duke of Normandy	Henry of
1144	1145	1146	1154 Death of Stephen. HENRY II Thomas Becket Chancellor	Henry newly Henry resu royal dem Stephen
1147 John of Robert of Conchester	1148	1149	1157	
1170 Murder of Becket.				
1171 John goes to Ireland	1172	1173 League against Henry of his three sons the King of France etc. etc	1181 The Assize of Arms to regulate the fyrd	
1174 John does penance at tomb of Becket	1175	1176	1184	
1177 John, king of Scots captured at Alnwick.	1178	1179	1187	The Sal

1105 ings set lo in Pembroke-shire	1106 Battle of Tenchebrai	1107 Roger of Salisbury Justiciar An elm and Henry agree as to election of bishop	1108	1109 Death of Anselm
drowned.	1123	1131	1130 1132	1133 Henry II. born Fidelity is sworn to Matilda.
	1126 The Great Council accepts Matilda as Lady of England and Normandy	1134	1135 Robert of Normandy dies in prison Death of Henry - STEPHEN and MATILDA	1136
offrey	1129	1137	1138 Battle of the Standard Robert, Earl of Gloucester disowns allegiance to Stephen	1139 Civil War Stephen arrests Roger, Bishop of Salisbury the Justiciar
anor	1153 Treaty of Wallingford.	1161	1160 1162 Becket Archbishop of Canterbury	1163 Dispute about criminal clerks
'the on of ed by	1156	1164 THE CONSTITUTIONS of CLARENDON	1165	1166
	1159 Scutage established	1167	1168	1169
	1183	1191 Richard takes Acre Corporation of London first legally recognised	1190 1192 Richard captured by the Duke of Austria and sold to the Emperor, Henry VI	1193
	1186	1194 Richard ransomed for 100 000 marks He returns to England for two months	1195	1196
	1189 Death of Henry II RICHARD I Richard goes on the Third Crusade.	1197 Richard builds "Sanctuary Castle" (Chateau Gaillard) on the Seine—near Rouen.	1198 Hugh Bishop of Lincoln refuses to find money for a foreign war	1199 Death of Richard JOHN Archbishop Hubert Chancellor

became a Mayor But the effects of the Crusades were much wider than this They brought the peoples of Europe closer together, and taught them to know more of each other, they opened up the East to the incursions of commerce, as well as of war, and they drained the country of the violent and turbulent spirits, to whom ceaseless fighting was a necessary occupation and the pursuits of peaceful labour detestable—The famous outlaw Robin Hood, “the English ballad-singer’s joy,” is said to have lived in this reign He lived in Sherwood Forest, hunted the king’s deer, in spite of the Forest Assize, robbed the rich that came in his way, and gave to the poor

(i) The first Mayor of London was Henry Fitz Alwyn (The title of *Lord Mayor* was first given by Edward III in 1354)

(ii) Coats of arms were introduced in this reign, to distinguish the knights who were cased in armour

(iii) The use of silk stuffs, spices and perfumes became general Tyrian glass, vessels of enamelled metal, and other products of art and skill were introduced into England

(iv) Sherwood Forest, in Nottingham, is in the neighbourhood of Newstead Abbey, the patrimonial estate of Lord Byron

SHORT CHRONOLOGY AND SUMMARY OF RICHARD I's REIGN

1189 Richard I leaves England to go on the Third Crusade

1190 William de Longchamp is made Justiciar (he is also Papal Legate)

1191 Richard takes Acre

1192 Richard is captured by Leopold, Duke of Austria, and sold to the Emperor Henry VI

1194 Richard is set free for a ransom of 150,000 marks

1198 Hugh, Bishop of Lincoln, refuses to pay money to support the war in France

1199 Richard dies of his wounds

IMPORTANT CONTEMPORARY EVENTS

1189-92 Third Crusade

1190-97 Henry VI is Emperor of Germany

1198 Florence an independent Republic.

CHAPTER III

JOHN

Born 1167 Succeeded (at the age of 32) in 1199 Died 1216
Reigned 17 years

JOHN (called SANSTERRE or LACKLAND), Earl of Mortagne, was the fifth and youngest son of Henry II and Eleanor of Aquitaine. He is the third king of the Plantagenet family. He was intended by his father to be King of Ireland. He married, first, HADWISA (or Hawis), grand daughter of Robert, the great Earl of Gloucester, who assisted Matilda against Stephen and, second, ISABELLA of ANGOULÊME. The children of the second marriage were Henry III, Richard, Earl of Cornwall and King of the Romans (that is, heir to the "Holy Roman Empire" of Germany), Joan, Eleanor, and Isabel.

(a) Joan married Alexander II of Scotland.

(b) Eleanor married (i) William the Marshal Earl of Pembroke, and (ii) Simon de Montfort, Earl of Leicester.

(c) Isabel married Frederick II, Emperor of Germany.

CONTEMPORARY SOVEREIGNS

SCOTLAND WILLIAM THE LION
to 1214

ALEXANDER II

FRANCE PHILIP II (Augustus)

GERMANY OTHO IV

POPE INNOCENT III

1 The Three Divisions of this Reign—There are in this reign three well-marked divisions. The first is the war with Philip II of France, which resulted in the loss of Normandy, the second is the dispute with the clergy of England, which ended in a complete and abject submission to Rome, the third is the long quarrel with the barons and people of England, the outcome of which was the signing of the Great Charter. And the total result of all these disputes was that John lost most of the Continental possessions of his family, and would also have lost the crown of England—had he not died in time.

2 John Sansterre,¹ 1199-1216 —When John was sent over to Ireland by his father Henry II to receive the homage of the Irish kings and chiefs, he and his young friends amused themselves by tearing the long hair, plucking out the beards, and otherwise insulting the men who had come to submit themselves to him as vassals. He was accordingly recalled, and no great province was ever given him. Hence his surname of *Sansterre* or *Lackland*. John, Lord of Ireland 1177. John, upon the news of his brother's death, sent over Hubert, Archbishop of Canterbury, to England, and this priest called together a Great Council at Northampton, which elected John king.

(i) Hubert, in crowning John, was careful to remind him that, though Arthur, as the son of John's eldest brother Geoffrey, had the better hereditary right, yet the nation had chosen *him* as the strongest and ablest man of his house. This looked like a recurrence to the "older rule" of election.

(ii) Hubert was made Chancellor of the kingdom.

3 The Claim of Arthur —Philip of France took the part of young Arthur, Count of Brittany, and supported his claim to the French duchies. Prince Arthur was besieging his own grandmother (the mother of John) in her castle of Mirabeau, when John swept suddenly down upon the beleaguering army, routed it, and made Arthur and his sister Eleanor prisoners. Eleanor was kept in prison during her life—which lasted forty years more, and Arthur was sent to the Tower of Rouen, and never heard of again. It was generally believed that John put him to death with his own hand. John was summoned by Philip, as his overlord, to appear before a court of French nobles—his peers, and to answer to the charge of murder. He refused. He was accordingly found guilty, and adjudged to have forfeited his lands, and Philip very quickly overran Normandy, which submitted quietly to his rule. Nothing remained to John of his over-sea possessions, except the Channel Islands and the duchy of Loss of Normandy Aquitaine. To England this loss was a gain. From this 1204 year of 1204, the sovereigns of England felt that they were Englishmen and not French princes, Norman barons could not live in France and spend their time fighting on English money, and it ceased to be a question used in hurling back a false accusation—"Do you take me for an Englishman?"

¹ This word exists in English as a proper name under the form of *Sangster*.

(i) John offered to appear before Philip and plead his own cause, if a safe-conduct thither and back were granted him. This was refused.

(ii) See Shakespeare's play of "King John," iv 1, for the fate of Prince Arthur

4 John's first great Quarrel —The See of Canterbury had fallen vacant by the death of Hubert Walter, and two persons had been named as archbishop—one by the king and the other by the junior monks of Christ Church, Canterbury, the right of confirming either choice belonging to the Pope. To the disgust of John, Pope Innocent III appointed neither, but gave the office to Stephen Langton, an Englishman of high character and great learning. John would not suffer Langton to land in England, and, to revenge himself still more, began to persecute the clergy in every way he could devise—and chiefly in the old Angevin way, by extorting money from and laying heavy taxes upon them. To punish the king, the Pope laid the whole country

The Pope's
Interdict
1208 under an Interdict. The churches were closed, and no sacraments were administered, except those of baptism and extreme unction,¹ the statues and pictures of the saints

were veiled in black, and their relics were laid in ashes upon the altars, the church bells were silent, the churchyards were closed, and the dead buried in silence, without any service, in the fields, in ditches, and in waste places. The king replied to this action of the Pope's by confiscating the land of the clergy, and by allowing outrages against them to go unpunished. A Welshman had murdered a priest, but all the king said was "Let him go, he has killed my enemy." Two years after the Interdict, the Pope proceeded to the

John ex
communi-
cated
1209

terrible sentence of personal Excommunication. John seized the property of the bishops. The next step of the Pope was a mere logical deduction from his previous act.

The Popes had long claimed the right to remove wicked or unchristian rulers from their thrones, and Pope Innocent, the ablest, proudest, and most powerful of all the successors of St Peter, accordingly pronounced against John the sentence of deposition, freed his subjects from their allegiance, and intrusted the carrying out of this sentence to John's greatest enemy, Philip of France. But, though Philip assembled his forces near Dieppe, he did not dare to invade the country.

¹ Sacrament for the dying

(i) Stephen Langton was the "first scholar of his day"

(ii) The people believed that, by means of the Interdict, the whole land was given up to the dominion of evil spirits

(iii) John's reply to the Interdict was to seize all the property and lands of the Church, and to leave to the clergy only enough for daily bread.

(iv) What frightened John even more than the Pope's Excommunication was the prophecy of a hermit, Peter of Wakefield, that, on next Ascension Day, John would be a king no more. At the same moment came the news that Philip was getting ready his fleet

5 John resigns the Crown.—And now, in addition to dangers from without, there was a much more terrible danger within. The barons disliked John's rule—especially his heavy taxation, and detested John himself. His cruelties were sufficient to excite their deepest and most lasting hatred. The wife and child of De Braose, one of the Lords Marchers on the borders of Wales, were taken prisoners, were thrown into a dungeon in one of the royal palaces, and, while John was feasting in the rooms above, they were starved to death in the cells below. All over the country, the barons—with hardly one exception—plunged into secret conspiracies, and entered into alliances with Philip, with the King of Scots, and with Llewellyn, a great prince of Wales. John, on his side, was engaged in looking for alliances in France and Germany. But none of the princes of these countries would ally himself with an excommunicated man, and thus John, finding himself utterly unaided and alone, was obliged to make his peace with the Pope. To the wonder of the world and the disgust of his subjects, King John, on the 15th of May 1213, solemnly resigned his crown and kingdom into the hands of Cardinal Pandulf, the Pope's legate, promised to pay a yearly rent of 1000 marks for them, and received them back again as a Papal fief, to be held by him as the "man" and vassal of the Pope. "He has become the Pope's man," said the people of England, "he is a serf of the Pope's"

(i) "The barons and people looked on in amazed acquiescence they did not, it would seem, all at once realise the shame of the transaction, or see that for them to be vassals of the Pope's vassal was to sink a long step in the scale of freedom, whether political or ecclesiastical"—STUBBS

(ii) "Henceforth the Church in union with the barons and the people helps to limit the power which in the earlier days she had striven to strengthen"—STUBBS

6 The Battle of Bouvines—This battle marks the crisis in John's disgraceful career. The armies of Philip and of John's allies met at the bridge of Bouvines, a small town between Lille and Tournay, while John himself was absent fighting in the south. Philip gained a complete victory, and, when they heard the news, the nobles of Poitou at once deserted the cause of King John, who fled, baffled and humiliated, back to England. This battle was one of the decisive battles of the world, for, as a great historian says, "it is to the victory of Bouvines that England owes her Great Charter." Had John been successful in this battle, he would have thoroughly stamped out the resistance of the barons, and Magna Charta—and with it the whole body of English liberty—might never have existed.

(i) The allies of John were his nephew Otto IV, the Emperor of Germany, the Earl of Flanders, and the Earl of Salisbury, who was John's half brother.

(ii) Philip stood forth for the moment as the mightiest king in Europe.

(iii) When John returned to England, after the battle of Bouvines, he set to work to fortify his castles. He brought over large numbers of hired troops from Flanders and Poitou, he tried to win back the clergy by granting them liberty of election to all ecclesiastical offices, and he took the cross—that is, became a Crusader, so as to put himself under the immediate protection of the Church.

People were preparing for the Fifth Crusade which lasted from 1216 to 1220.

7 John's second great Quarrel—When John landed in England, he found the barons no longer engaged in secret conspiracies, but openly united in one strong league in defence of liberty and law. At the head of this league stood the brave Stephen Langton, the Archbishop of Canterbury. For the third time in the history of England, the Church had stood up against the personal tyranny of kings, and in defence of the old English customs and the old English laws. Anselm had braved William I, Theobald had delivered the country from the cruelty of King Stephen, and now Langton, at the head of the nobility, was ready to face, and if possible to put down, the tyranny of King John. Langton produced the charter of Henry I, and the barons took an oath at the altar of St Edmundsbury to demand from John, by force of arms if necessary, the observance of this charter and of the laws and customs of King Edward. This was in the autumn of 1214, at Christmas they marched to London, appeared in arms before the king, and preferred

their claim. The military leader of the barons was Robert Fitzwalter, "the Marshal of the Host of God and Holy Church" On the side of John stood seven knights and his hired soldiers · and over-against him a nation in arms

A list of articles which the barons wished John to sign was sent to him at Oxford He refused "These articles are pure nonsense!" he cried "Why do they not ask me for my kingdom at once?"

8 Runnymede, June 15, 1215¹—An island in the Thames, between Staines and Windsor, was appointed as the meeting-place, as John was at the time residing in Windsor Castle The discussion of the *Great Charter* was an empty form, devised to cover the fact of force being applied to the king The articles of the Charter were discussed, passed, and signed all in one day Articles 39 and 40 were of special importance "No freeman," says the first of these, "shall be arrested, or imprisoned, or dispossessed of his tenement, or outlawed, or exiled, or in any wise proceeded against, we will not put or cause to be put hands upon him, except by the legal judgment of his peers, or by the law of the land" And the 40th runs thus "To no man will we sell, to no man will we deny or delay, right or justice" And this Great Charter² forms the corner-stone of the solid edifice of English liberty and rights Five- and-twenty barons, among whom was the Mayor of London, were appointed a committee to enforce the observance of the Charter, and for this purpose they were empowered to hold the Tower and City of London The oppressions of John had turned the barons from Normans into genuine Englishmen, from local robbers into law-abiding citizens, the demand and pressure of the barons had turned John from a rampant foreign despot into an English constitutional king

The Great
Charter
1215

(i) The King encamped on one side of the river, the barons, on the flat meadow of Runnymede, on the other side

(ii) The Great Charter contained articles (63) relating to all the interests and conditions of life in England

1 THE CHURCH To enjoy all her whole rights and liberties, especially her freedom of election to sees, abbeys, etc.

¹ On a date very similar to this, June 18 1815 Wellington met the forces of Napoleon at Waterloo, and broke that form of European tyranny

² The original charter, with John's seal affixed, may still be seen at the British Museum

2 FEUDALISM Under this head the most important article was No scutage or aid to be imposed on knights or barons unless by the Great Council—*except* the usual three (i) to ransom the king's body, (ii) for the knighting of an eldest son, (iii) for the first marriage of an eldest daughter

3 JUSTICE (a) The Court of Common Pleas to remain fixed at Westminster, and not to follow the Curia Regis about the country

Suitors defendants counsel and witnesses had often to travel from one end of the kingdom to the other to appear before this Court.

(b) No free man to be imprisoned, punished, or outlawed, except by the judgment of his equals, or by the law of the land
Justice not to be denied, delayed, or sold

4 TRADE (a) The City of London to have all its ancient rights, liberties, and customs, by land as by water And so with all other towns and boroughs

(b) One measure, one weight, one standard for the whole kingdom

(c) All goods seized by the King's Purveyors to be paid for at the ordinary market price

(d) Merchants to be allowed to come and go in and out of the kingdom freely

(iii) Magna Charta may be regarded as a great Treaty or Contract between the King and the English People For the *first* time the main articles of the Constitution were put down in black and white, and the respective duties and rights towards each other of King and people were clearly stated.

(iv) The signing of the Great Charter and the Revolution of 1688 are regarded as the two most important events in our history "Here commences," says Macaulay, "the history of the English nation."

(v) The Great Charter was "confirmed" thirty eight times by different kings—the last being Henry VI It was not always kept

(vi) "Magna Charta was a treaty of peace between the king and his people, and so is a complete national act. It is the first act of the kind, for it differs from the charters issued by Henry I, Stephen, and Henry II not only in its greater fulness and perspicuity, but by having a distinct machinery provided to carry it out Twenty five barons were nominated to compel the king to fulfil his part"—STUBBS

(vii) Runnymede has been called the "Holy Land of English Liberty"

(viii) Magna Charta, which was written in Latin, is preserved in the British Museum

9 War with the Barons —John signed and sealed the Charter with a courteous and cheerful air, and then rode slowly back up the hill into his splendid castle of Windsor When he entered his room, the Angevin passion broke loose—the storm of pent-up rage poured

forth—such rage and such passion as at times shook the heart and nerves of his father Henry “They have given me five-and-twenty over-kings,”¹ he shrieked, and flung himself on the floor, tearing his beard, rending his clothes, and gnawing sticks and straw in the impotence of his passion. John never meant for a moment to keep the Charter. Before autumn was over he had collected a large army of foreign mercenaries, and with them he marched right through his kingdom up to Berwick. The atrocities of his foreign troops were unspeakable, they slaughtered women and children, and left behind their march only a desert. His aim was to strike a blow at the ally of the northern barons, Alexander II, king of Scots. Every morning he set fire with his own hands to the house in which he had slept over-night. Philip now saw his opportunity, and, at the request of the barons, sent his son Louis to seize England. The barons willingly flocked to Louis’s banner, but they were unable to take Dover Castle, “the lock and key of England.” The barons, moreover, became disgusted when Louis handed over to some one of his own followers every castle and fief he took, and they began to fall away. In one of his campaigns against his barons, John tried to cross the Wash with his army, but the quick-rising tide swept away all his baggage and the royal treasure.

(i) Pope Innocent III took John’s side in his differences with the barons. He absolved John from his oath, he threatened to excommunicate the barons for making war upon a Crusader, and he suspended Langton from the exercise of the functions of his office.

(ii) Louis of France had married Blanche of Castile, the grand daughter of Henry II.

10 **The Death of John**—Vexation at this loss, added to a surfeit of peaches and new cider,¹ brought on a fever, and he died in the castle of Newark, October 19th, 1216. By his own desire he was buried in the cathedral at Worcester.—He was one of the worst men that ever lived. In outward manners, he was lively, courteous, and good-humoured, in heart and soul, he was faithless, cruel, and selfish. He was utterly indifferent to the happiness or the misery of his subjects. His inner spirit seems to have been absolutely evil, for it was absolutely selfish. His word was as good as his bond, for he cared for neither. He was cruel,—and cruel with

Death of
John
1216.

¹ With this compare James I’s exclamation when a Puritan deputation was announced, “Set twal chairs for twal kings!”

all the intensity of fear. He starved and hanged young boys and girls, he crushed old men to death under copes of lead. He was at once irreligious and superstitious, he blasphemed the services of the Church, but he never started on an expedition without hanging bunches of relics round his neck. He had great military ability, but no statesmanship, for he had no desire for the good of his kingdom. "He was an able man," says a historian, "but incapable of using his abilities except for his own destruction, a crafty man without sagacity, a suspicious man without insight, a learned man without wisdom, a rash man without courage, an obstinate man without firmness, a social man without sympathy, and an evil man without shame."

"History has set upon his character a darker and deeper mark than she has set on any other king. He was in every way the worst of the whole list: the most vicious, the most profane, the most tyrannical, the most false, the most short-sighted, the most unscrupulous. —STUBBS

11 The Results of John's Reign—The reign of John is a turning-point in the history of this country, it marks the beginning of a new era, and its results were rich in benefits for the constitution and for the people of England. The loss of Normandy gave England to itself, ensured the free development of English life without foreign influence or interference, and hastened the absorption of the Norman element into the English people. Magna Charta enabled the people to limit the power of the king, and, for the next two centuries, we find the English people leagued with the Baronage and the Church to resist any tyranny that might be exercised by the Crown. The abject surrender of John to the Pope, and the action of Pope Innocent in supporting John while he was endeavouring to break his signed promises, created in England a strong feeling of antagonism to the Papacy, and led to much of the anti-Roman legislation that was carried on from the time of Edward I to the period of the Reformation.

(i) The loss of Normandy belongs to 1204

(ii) The signing of the Great Charter belongs to 1215

(iii) Thus the decade from 1205 to 1215 contains more of the germs of English freedom and English constitutional organisation than any other

(iv) The Norman baron and the English freeman (or yeoman) had become equals in the eye of the law and this equality had been the work of the Crown under Henry II, Richard, and John.

12 Great Men—The most distinguished men in the reign of John were Hubert Walter, Geoffrey Fitz-Peter, Peter des Roches, Stephen Langton, and William the Marshal, Earl of Pembroke. The first three filled the offices of Justiciar and of Chancellor, and, on the whole, carried out the legislation and financial policy of Henry II. But above them all towers the great figure of Stephen Langton, who organised and headed the powers of resistance to John, who fought steadily and persistently, in defiance of King and Pope, for the liberties and rights of the people and of the Church.

(i) Hubert Walter had been chaplain to Henry II, then Bishop of Salisbury, next chaplain and counsellor to the Third Crusade, next Justiciar of England, Archbishop of Canterbury, and Papal Legate in the reign of Richard, lastly Chancellor to John from 1199 to his death in 1205.

(ii) Geoffrey Fitz Peter was Justiciar from 1198 till his death in 1213. When John heard of his death, he exclaimed, "I am glad of it! Now, indeed, for the first time am I king and lord in England!" And he gave the justiciarship to his favourite Peter des Roches, whose nickname was "Squire Peter."

(iii) Peter des Roches was a Poitevin (=man of Poitou), who carried out John's wishes without regard to law or precedent.

13 Social Facts—The powers of the boroughs and the importance of the trading classes grew greatly during the reign of John, and this growth is strongly and strikingly marked by the nomination of the Mayor of London as one of the twenty-five Sworn Guardians appointed to see that John kept the promises he had signed in the Great Charter. London Bridge was completed in stone in the year 1209, and, for the first time, chimneys made their appearance in this country, and were added to many houses. The population of the whole country was at this time estimated at 2,000,000—a good deal less than half the population of London alone in the present day.

(i) Townspeople could meet and discuss the questions that interested them with perfect freedom.

(ii) The merchants had their merchant-guilds, and artisans their craft-guilds, and these bodies grew gradually very strong and protected the interests of their members. These mediæval associations were similar in character to our modern trades unions and benefit societies. Their name still survives in *Guildhall* (in the City of London) and in the *Dean of Guild* in Scottish burghs.

14 Scotland to 1214—Malcolm IV was succeeded by his younger brother William the Lion. He also followed Henry II in his French wars, and, as recompence for this and other services, he asked from

Henry the restitution of the Earldom of Northumberland Henry promptly declined. William invaded Northumberland. The Scottish army broke up into small plundering parties, and there was no battle. About four hundred barons and knights of Yorkshire, all clad in full armour, and mounted on strong horses, pushed northwards into Northumberland. The morning of the 13th July 1174 dawned thick with heavy mists from the sea, and, themselves unseen by the Scottish scouts, the Yorkshire knights caught sight of the towers of Alnwick Castle, and at the same time of a party of mounted cavaliers in a meadow. One of these, on seeing the advancing body, put spurs to his horse, and galloped up to them. He was surrounded, unhorsed, and taken, and the English barons found that they had taken prisoner the King of Scotland himself. He had been taken in open war upon English soil. He was carried off to Falaise in Normandy, accompanied by the flower of the nobility of Scotland. Here Henry II made with him a treaty called the Treaty of Falaise. By this treaty, William bought his freedom by admitting the complete feudal superiority over Scotland of the English king. The homage paid was absolute, the Prince of Scotland, William's brother, joined in it, five Scottish castles were given up to be held by English troops, and twenty Scottish nobles were retained as hostages by Henry. For fifteen years Scotland was a fief of the English Crown. In 1189, however, Richard Lion-Heart, wishing to join the Third Crusade, released William the Lion from his vassalage for the sum of ten thousand marks.—In the reign of King John, in 1209, William again did homage to the English king for his dominions, but he succeeded in defeating John's intention to build a strong castle on the English side of the Tweed. William the Lion died in 1214, after a reign of forty-nine years.

(i) It was said that the capture of William the Lion was made on the very day on which Henry expiated his sins by his penance at the tomb of Thomas Becket.

(ii) The five castles given up to Henry II were Edinburgh, Stirling, Berwick, Jedburgh, and Roxburgh. These castles commanded not only the richest parts of Scotland, but also the borders of the two countries.

(iii) It is worthy of note that most of the twenty Scottish nobles left as hostages had Norman names.

(iv) William the Lion founded the Abbey of Arbroath, in Forfarshire. He dedicated it to St. Thomas of England, "on account of the love that existed between himself and St. Thomas, when they were both at the Court of King Henry

SHORT CHRONOLOGY AND SUMMARY OF JOHN'S REIGN

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| <p>1199 John elected king</p> <p>1200 Twenty five citizens chosen to assist the Mayor of London. First beginning of the City Corporation</p> <p>1203 Disappearance of Arthur of Brittany</p> <p>1204. Phillip II. takes Normandy, Maine etc</p> <p>1205 Archbishop Hubert Walter dies</p> <p>1206 Stephen Langton elected Archbishop of Canterbury</p> <p>1208 England is placed under an Interdict</p> <p>1209 John is excommunicated.</p> <p>1211. Submission of Llewellyn, Prince of Snowden</p> <p>1213 John becomes the Pope's vassal</p> <p>1213 (a) French fleet beaten at Damme by the English (This is the first great naval victory recorded in English annals)</p> | <p>(b) The first representative assembly on record in England meets at St. Albans Geoffrey Fitz Peter promises, in the name of the king, that the laws of Henry I shall be observed</p> <p>(c) Langton produces, at a Great Council in St Pauls, the charter of Henry I</p> <p>(d) Geoffrey Fitz Peter dies, and Peter des Roches becomes Justiciar</p> <p>1214. (a) Battle of Bouvines</p> <p>(b) Charter to London to elect its own Mayor, Sheriff, and common councilmen</p> <p>1215 (a) The GREAT CHARTER</p> <p>(b) John collects hired troops</p> <p>(c) The Barons offer the crown to Louis of France</p> <p>1216 (a) Louis lands in England</p> <p>(b) John dies at Newark.</p> |
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IMPORTANT CONTEMPORARY EVENTS

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| <p>1204. Constantinople taken by the Crusaders (Fourth).</p> <p>1212. The Boy Crusade.</p> | <p>1214 William the Lion of Scotland dies. Alexander II succeeds</p> <p>1216 Fifth Crusade</p> |
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CHAPTER IV

HENRY THE THIRD (OF WINCHESTER)

Born 1207 Succeeded (at the age of 9) in 1216 Died 1272
Reigned 56 years

HENRY III., or Henry of Winchester, was born at Winchester in 1207. He was the eldest son of John and Isabella of Angoulême. In 1236 he married Eleanor of Provence. His children were Edward I., Edmund, Earl of Lancaster, who was offered the crown of Sicily by the Pope Margaret, who married Alexander III. of Scotland, etc. etc.

CONTEMPORARY SOVEREIGNS

SCOTLAND	ALEXANDER II	FRANCE	LOUIS VIII	POPES	HONORIUS III
	ALEXANDER III		LOUIS IX (St Louis)		GREGORY IX etc. etc
			PHILIP III		GREGORY X

1 The Periods of this Reign — The reign of HENRY III. falls easily into four periods. The first is the period of the Regency, which ends with the disgrace and fall of the patriotic Hubert de Burgh. The second is the period of misgovernment by foreign favourites, which led to the meeting of the "Mad Parliament." The third period is filled by the Great Barons' War against the king, which ends with the death of the great Earl of Leicester, and the fourth is the short period of peace and comparative prosperity which lies between the close of the Barons' War and the death of Henry III.

2 Henry III., 1216-1272 — GUALO, the Pope's legate, with three bishops and four barons, crowned Prince Henry, the eldest son of John, with a plain circlet of gold at Gloucester, on the 28th of October 1216. Henry was only nine years old, and William the

Marshal, Earl of Pembroke, a wise and good man who had been the friend of Henry's father and grandfather, was made *Warden of the King and Kingdom*. Hubert de Burgh was Justiciar. Louis kept up the struggle for a year, but two battles—one by land and one at sea—quickly put an end to all his hopes of making England an appanage of the French Crown. The French Count de la Perche was besieging the castle of Lincoln in May 1217, and the Earl of Pembroke caught his soldiers in the narrow streets of the town, and with his knights and bowmen made a terrific slaughter. So little loss was there on the English side, so easy the victory, and so great the spoil, that the battle went by the jocular name of the "*Fair of Lincoln*"—The fight at sea was a more serious business. Louis had sent for succours from France, and a strong fleet of eighty sail, commanded by Eustace the Monk, a desperate pirate of the time, crossed the Strait of Dover. Hubert de Burgh, who held Dover Castle, collected with difficulty a fleet of forty sail, and put out to meet Eustace. A desperate battle was fought. The English managed to get to windward of the French ships, threw quicklime in the eyes of the crews, followed this up with showers of arrows, then pushed with the iron beaks of their galleys, boarded the enemy's ships, cut the rigging, and succeeded in gaining a complete victory for their brave leader De Burgh. Louis, who still held London, was very glad to make his way home after this news, while Alexander, king of Scots, and the prince of North Wales, Prince Llewellyn, gave in their adhesion to the young prince.

The crown of England had been lost in the Wash

(i) Before Hubert went on board, he said to the officer he had left in charge of Dover Castle: "If I be taken, I beseech you, in God's name, to let them hang me before your eyes rather than give up this key of England to any Frenchman born."

(ii) The arrangement under which Louis agreed to go was called the Peace of Lambeth. After it, there was no civil war in England for many years.

(iii) Henry III. was crowned a second time at Westminster, in 1220, by Archbishop Stephen Langton, and all the ceremonies which had been omitted at the hurried coronation at Gloucester were then fully and carefully gone through.

3. Hubert de Burgh.—After the death of William Marshal, the great Earl of Pembroke, in 1219, the government of the country was taken up by Hubert de Burgh, Peter des Roches, and Pandulf, the Papal Legate. The chief object of Hubert was to restore the reign of

law and order, to bring back to the kingdom security for life, property, and labour, and to put an end to the disorders which had sprung up in England during the struggle of the barons with King John. In 1227 the king came of age, dismissed Bishop Peter from

his office of Guardian, and gave all his confidence to ^{Hubert} Justiciar to Hubert, whom he created Earl of Kent. Peter went on 1232. crusade for five years, and, on his return, set about to sow suspicion in the mind of the king, who was indeed by nature too easily suspicious. He succeeded in persuading Henry that his Justiciar had been robbing him. The weak young king was furious. He stripped his old and faithful counsellor of all his wealth and offices. Hubert took sanctuary in a church. The king sent one of his officers to drag him out. The officer sent for a smith to rivet fetters on him. The smith refused. He threw down his tools and exclaimed "Do what you will with me, but, as God liveth, I will die any death before I fasten iron on the man who freed England from the alien and saved Dover, the key of this kingdom, from the host of France!" Hubert was at length set free by the king, but he never ruled the country again. He was the last of the great Justiciars of England who had been trained in the policy of Henry II and who had acted as prime ministers and chief advisers to the kings of this country.

(i) From the fall of Hubert, the Chancellor not the Justiciar, becomes the most important of the king's advisers.

(ii) "Under Hubert, England passed from civil war to comparative order, under every other minister of that reign, from comparative order to civil war or its beginnings. —PEARSON

4 Poitevins, Provençals, and Half-brothers—Twenty-six years of bad government followed the dismissal of Hubert. Henry was a weak young man, without much will or clear insight of his own, and always too ready to be led by others or yield to circumstances. He was himself ruled by his wife, his mother, and his courtiers, and these persons did not think very much about the good of the realm. He married, at the age of twenty-nine, Eleanor, the daughter of Count Raymond of Provence.—When the Earl of Pembroke died in 1219, the country was placed under the management of Hubert de Burgh and Peter des Roches, the bishop of Winchester. Peter, himself a Poitevin, bestowed all the offices and dignities he could upon Port-

evins, Eleanor made interest for Provençals, and Henry himself always preferred Frenchmen and foreigners to Englishmen. Henry's mother, Isabella, who had married Hugh de la Marche, had a numerous family of sons, and these half-brothers of the king came over to push their fortunes in England, and take all they could get. Thus everywhere foreigners crowded the natives out of office and power. These favourites were insolent and haughty in the highest degree, and to every complaint their reply was, "What have we to do with the law of your land? It was made for English boers."

(i) The Poitevins were dismissed on the representation of the barons, headed by Edmund Rich, Archbishop of Canterbury, and Peter des Roches fell with them.

(ii) The chief Provençals were the uncles of the Queen—William of Valence, Boniface of Savoy, and Peter of Savoy. To the last was given a piece of land between the Strand and the Thames, which is called *The Savoy* to this day. The king married many of the poor Provençals to rich English heirs and heiresses.

The Queen's relations poured into the country as into a newly discovered gold field, dignities, territories, high offices in Church and State were lavished upon them, and the rumour went abroad that they were attempting to change the constitution of the kingdom.—*Strutt*.

(iii) Count Peter of Savoy "brought over a train of young ladies from Savoy to be provided with husbands, and three English girls were married without the power of choice, being royal wards, to foreigners."

5 The King's Faults—The king's greatest faults were the seemingly inconsistent vices of greed and prodigality. He was always seeking for money, and always giving it away. When his first son Edward was born, he sent messages to all the great nobles that large presents were expected. "Heaven gave us this child," said a Norman, "but the king sells him to us." London and other large towns had heavy taxes laid upon them, for every reason and for no reason. But the weaknesses of kings often make the strength of kingdoms. This fondness of Henry for money made his subjects more and more disinclined to give it, until at last it became clearly settled and fully understood in England, that the power of the purse belonged, not to the king, but to the whole nation.

(i) In 1257, the king presented his second son Edmund to the barons as King of Sicily, and informed them that he had pledged his kingdom of England to the Pope for 140,000 marks. This, as much as any of the other misdoings of the king, led to the institution and laid the foundation of the power of Parliament. For the barons saw two things very clearly: (a) that the king must have proper advisers or ministers, and (b) that these ministers must be directly responsible to the nation.

(ii) For twenty-four years (1234-58) the post of Justiciar was left vacant, and for seventeen years (1244-61) the post of Chancellor. The work of these two offices, the highest under the Crown, was done by clerks appointed temporarily by the king.

6 An Archbishop—One of his greedy favourites was his wife's uncle, Boniface of Savoy. Him he made Archbishop of Canterbury after the death of Edmund Rich. Boniface was an entirely ignorant person—a bully knight—a fierce soldier—a young man who had learned nothing but war. One day he entered London, and though the city monasteries were not under his care, he forced his way into St Bartholomew's, and when the Prior mildly and courteously declined to acknowledge his jurisdiction, he struck him in the face with his "archiepiscopal fist," knocked him down, and kicked and trampled upon him. A riot followed, and the citizens of London, rising in their rage, drove Boniface and his guards out of the gates. Another set of favourites tried to engage Henry in a number of impossible attempts to recover his French provinces, and he spent a vast amount of money in these attempts, but never to any purpose. Isabel, his mother, whom the French persisted in calling Jezebel, incited him in the same direction. This, of course, threw the king more and more into the power of his subjects.

This worthy archbishop wore a coat of mail under his robes.

7 The Pope's Legate—Another thing that disgusted his people with the king was his connection with Cardinal Otho, the Pope's legate. King John had vowed to pay to the Pope a yearly rent or tribute of 1000 marks, but no one dared to levy it after his death. To extract money from the country, but ostensibly "to reform the state of the Church," Otho was sent, and he exacted under various pretences large sums of money from church, cathedral, abbey, and monastery. Henry confirmed Magna Charta and swore to observe it no fewer than ten times, only to gain supplies of money. "So help me God, these things I will faithfully observe, as I am a man, a Christian, a knight, and a crowned and anointed king!" His manhood, his Christianity, his knighthood, and his kinghood, were alike inadequate to hold him to his word. Much of the gold that he extorted he gave to the legate, and he crowned all his folly by placing this messenger of the Pope on his royal throne at the feast of Christmas Day in the year 1240.

(1) The Pope tried to find in England three sources of revenue. He treated England as if it were his own private estate. He demanded from the clergy one tenth of their annual income (tithes), the income for the first year of all benefices

("first fruits" or "annates"), and he also demanded the right of presenting Italian priests to English livings ("provision" or "provisions")

(ii) "When Otho actually departed, escorted by the King and Court with trumpets to the coast, it was said that he had drained England of more money than he had left in it."—PEARSON

(iii) "The Pope derived 60,000 marks a year, or as much as the whole revenue of the king himself, from the kingdom

8 The Provisions of Oxford—Not only did the Popes of this time maintain that kings held their realms from them, and were therefore their vassals, but they claimed a right to tax the clergy and the Church lands to whatever extent they thought proper. This claim the Archbishop of York resisted, and Pope Innocent went so far as to excommunicate him.—The Pope also offered to Edmund, the second son of Henry, the crown of Sicily, and Henry was foolish enough to accept it for him. But the kingdom of Sicily would have to be taken by force of arms, and Henry pledged England to repay the cost. The barons were enraged at this weakness, and some of them refused to pay a penny. "I will send threshers and thresh your corn for you," said Henry to Bigod, Earl of Norfolk. "And I will send you back the heads of your threshers," was the reply. At last the barons forced Henry to agree to the formation of a kind of committee of twenty-four persons, who should administer the government. It was very well to make the king swear to observe Magna Charta, but the difficulty was to get its articles and promises carried out. The barons accordingly repaired in arms to a Great Council (the "Mad Parliament"), called together at Oxford in July 1258, and there certain agreements were come to which are known in history by the name of the Provisions of Oxford. The justiciar of England, the chancellor of the realm, and the guardians of the king's castles, swore to do nothing without the permission or assent of this Royal Council. It is worthy of note that the *proclamation* regarding these provisions was issued in Latin, French, and English. It was the first proclamation in the English tongue since the Norman invasion, all others had been in Norman-French or in Latin. This Council, in fact, now held the royal power. But they quarrelled among themselves, and Henry intrigued with some of them to get back his authority.

The Provisions of Oxford 1258

(1) The word Parliament was first used in 1216, as the name for the Common Council or Great Council of the Kingdom

(ii) The Provisions of Oxford were so called because they were drawn up by the Parliament ("the Mad Parliament") which met at Oxford in 1258.

They were as follows —

- (a) A Temporary Committee of Twenty four to reform grievances
- (b) A Permanent Council of Fifteen to advise the king
- (c) The Fifteen to hold three annual Parliaments (in February, June, and October) and to consult with a body of Twelve who represented the barons
- (d) Another body of Twenty four to regulate taxation.

(iii) "The chiefs of this permanent council were the Archbishop of Canterbury, the Bishop of Worcester, and the Earls of Gloucester and Leicester"—*Stubbs* Hugh Bigod was appointed justiciar

(iv) "Three lines of mischief combine to produce the great crisis of 1258" The three lines were (a) Heavy taxation and attempt to rule by foreign favourites, and mere clerks instead of Ministers of State, (b) the heavy demands of the Pope for money, (c) the wars in France and the difficulties in Gascony

9 Simon de Montfort—The head of the barons' party, and the most remarkable man in England during this reign, was Simon de Montfort, Earl of Leicester. He was a Frenchman, who had married the king's sister Eleanor, and was at first greatly beloved by the king. But he gradually became in mind and feelings a thorough Englishman, and was long the idol of the English people, who were wont to call him "Sir Simon the Righteous." The inhabitants of the cities and great towns were on the side of De Montfort, and the Londoners soon gave a practical proof of this fact. When war broke out, the Queen, who was residing in the Tower, wished to sail up the Thames to Windsor Castle, but the citizens of London pelted her and hooted her as a witch, threw volleys of filth into the royal barge, tried to sink it with large stones, and would not permit her barge to pass London Bridge.

"Simon de Montfort was a great and good man. He stands out best and most grandly in comparison with the meanness with which he was surrounded—the paltry, faithless king, the selfish and unscrupulous baronage"—*Stubbs*

10 The Battle of Lewes—The Londoners also sent a strong body of their best men to support De Montfort, who came up with the king at Lewes¹ on the 14th of May 1264. The armies were unequally matched, for the king had many foreign crossbow-men and

¹ The county town of Sussex.

hardened veteran soldiers, while on the other side were new recruits and raw levies. Leicester's men wore white crosses on back and breast, and following the example of their leader, who was a deeply religious man, they knelt in prayer while the royal forces advanced. The impetuosity of Prince Edward (afterwards Edward I) gave the battle into the hands of De Montfort. The Prince, eager to avenge the foul insults shown to his mother, hurried on his men to attack the Londoners with fiery vigour, and in a few minutes he sent them flying in utter rout. For four miles he chased them in his rage, cutting, hewing, slaughtering—and sparing none, until he had put to death 3000 men. He returned, but the battle was lost, and it was lost through his reckless activity. He cut his way into the priory of Lewes, only to find himself and his father prisoners. This victory placed Earl Simon at the head of the State. He released the person of Henry, but kept Prince Edward, and Richard, Earl of Cornwall ("King of the Romans"), Henry's brother, close prisoners—the one in the Tower, and the other at Dover. The Pope's legate threatened the barons with excommunication, but the men of Dover kept a constant outlook for the arrival of the Pope's Bull, and when it landed they threw it into the sea.

Battle of
Lewes
1264.

(i) Next day the two sides met in peaceful council and determined on an arbitration, which was called the *Mise of Lewes*. The king gave himself and his son into the hands of Earl Simon, who from that time ruled in the king's name.

Mise is a French word which means pact, settlement, or arbitration.

(ii) The *Mise of Lewes* contained seven articles, the most important of which was that the king was to take the advice of English, and not of foreign, counsellors.

11. **The Parliament.**—This reign is further remarkable for the appearance of a new power in the country—name and thing. The creator of this new power was Simon de Montfort. The National Council before his time consisted only of nobles and bishops, who held land direct from the king, and were called together by him to give money and advice. But Simon resolved to summon to the council of the nation men from the counties and from the boroughs also. He accordingly called upon the smaller crown-tenants and franklins (or freeholders) in each county to elect two of their number to represent them, and these were called, as they still are, **Knights of**

the shire¹ But he went a step further He made each city, cinqueport, and large town send up two burgesses to London, and these two sets of representatives formed the beginnings of our House of Commons

First But at first they all met in one chamber, though the
Parliament "Commons" occupied inferior seats, and it is probable
1265 that they did not vote together On the 28th of January 1265, there met at Westminster, on the summons of Simon, twenty-three peers, eleven bishops, one hundred and five abbots and other clerics, with two knights from each shire and two citizens from each important town, and it is from this time that we date our present constitution of Sovereign, Lords, and Commons

(i) To this Parliament of 1265 were summoned two knights from each county, and, *for the first time*, representatives from the cities and boroughs Thus the city communities or *commons* had members of their own This proves that commerce and industries were growing in importance. Two knights had been summoned from each shire in 1254

(ii) With this Parliament the English Constitution assumes, in all essential features, the shape it has to day

(iii) The Parliament of 1265 can scarcely be called a *free* parliament, for only those were invited who were known to be on the side of the barons

(iv) "The Parliament of 1265 forms a landmark in English history It was not made a precedent, and in fact it is not till thirty years after that the representatives of the towns begin to sit regularly in Parliament"—*Stubbs*

12 The Battle of Evesham—But, just at its highest pitch and culmination, the power of Earl Simon was very near its fall The nation in general disliked the restraint which was put upon their king and their prince, Henry and Edward, and Simon's sons gave great offence by their haughtiness of manners and tyrannical conduct The Earl of Gloucester, too, a powerful baron, who was jealous of Simon's exalted position, quarrelled with him and joined the party of the Royalists Edward managed to escape from custody, took the town of Gloucester, surprised the younger Simon at Kenilworth, and cut his whole force to pieces He then pushed on against the elder
Battle of Simon, whom he met at Evesham on the 4th of August
Evesham 1265 The Earl was surprised by a new device, Edward
1265 displayed in his van the banners he had taken at Kenilworth, and his forces were mistaken for friends Upon discovering

¹ The member for a county is called *Knight of the Shire* and the sheriff girds a sword upon him when he is elected. The member for a borough is simply M P

his error, "Let us commend our souls to God," he cried, "for our bodies are the fowls." Most of his troops were new levies—raw Welshmen, without training, without armour, and with only billhooks and scythes for arms. They were soon broken and pursued, trodden down and slaughtered like sheep, and killed in twos and threes behind the shocks of wheat and in the gardens, where they had taken refuge. Earl Simon, his son, Hugh Despenser, and a few others, kept close together in one compact band, but one by one they fell, till only the Earl himself was left alive. He was summoned to surrender, but refused, a blow from behind felled him to the ground, and the great statesman and patriot died with the cry upon his lips, "It is the grace of God!" The bodies of the Earl and his son were brutally mutilated, but the pious monks of Evesham buried their remains, and the "good Sir Simon" was spoken of for many years in accents of kindness and respect, and was long held in honour as a martyr. The patriotic party was thoroughly broken, and the league was at an end. The last to yield was Llewellyn, who was afterwards decorated with the title of *Prince of Wales* (Before this, he had merely been spoken of by the English as *Lord of Snowdon*). The City of London was condemned, for having supported the cause of the great Earl, to pay £230,000—a sum which was then equal¹ to more than two millions at the present time.

Death of
Montfort
1265

(i) The remnant of the barons held out at Kenilworth, but at length came to an agreement. This agreement was called the *Dictum de Kenilworth*. It restored his power to the king, and allowed those barons who had incurred the penalty of the forfeiture of their estates to get back their lands by the payment of a fine.

(ii) The City of London was excluded from the benefits of the Kenilworth agreement. It was deprived of its charter, the Mayor and his friends were compelled to ransom themselves, and no man in the City was allowed to own a war horse.

(iii) Earl Simon was a great and good man. His friends used to praise his simple fare and plain russet dress, his love of good men, his scorn for deceit, and his unbroken respect for his word.

(iv) His apparently unsuccessful rebellion led to three good results. (a) There were no more foreign favourites, (b) The interference of the Pope as Overlord was put an end to, and (c) a Parliament representing the whole nation, and holding the king's ministers responsible, was founded.

13 The Death of Henry—In the year 1268, the country had quieted down, and the two young princes, Edward and Edmund, joined

¹ That is equal in purchasing power. It would go as far."

the Seventh or Last Crusade St Louis (or Louis IX) of France was the chief promoter of this new religious campaign, but he died of the plague at Carthage, and never reached the Holy Land. While his sons were absent on this expedition, Henry III died on the 16th of November 1272. He was buried in Westminster Abbey, which he was at the time engaged in rebuilding. The Earl of Gloucester, one of the strong supporters of the Crown, laid his hand upon the body before it was lowered into the vault, and swore fealty, in the name of the barons and people of England, to the absent Prince Edward, and four days after Edward was proclaimed king—"Beggar king" was the name given by one of the monkish writers to Henry III, and there was certainly great truth in the epithet. The weakness of his character made it clear that England must rely, for the management of its affairs, on the best advice it could get from the nobles and citizens of the land, and not on the mind and feelings of one man—Henry had reigned for the long period of fifty-six years.

(i) "Henry III would, as a private gentleman, have lived without infamy and without praise.—PEARSON. Hallam thinks the epithet *worthless* the most appropriate to Henry III.

(ii) "His life was mean in the midst of its magnificence, it was wanting in the one element that leads men to respect, even when they fear and blame, the character of reality or 'veracity to a man's self.' There was no purpose, as there was no faith in it."—STUBBS

14 Great Men—The most distinguished men in the early part of Henry III's reign were Stephen Langton, Hubert de Burgh, William the Marshal, Earl of Pembroke, and Peter des Roches. In the latter part of the reign the most prominent persons are Simon de Montfort, Robert Grosseteste, and Gilbert, Earl of Gloucester. Of all these, Hubert de Burgh was the most patriotic and diligent servant of his country. The Earl of Pembroke, or—as he was generally called—the Earl Marshal, was always a faithful adviser of the king, while it is to the courage, uprightness, and clear insight of Earl Simon that we owe the best part of our parliamentary institutions.

(i) "The expulsion of the French, the restoration of order, and the securing of the validity of the Great Charter, were the chief debt that England owed to William Marshall.—STUBBS

(ii) Robert Grosseteste, "the great divine, scholar, and pastor," was Bishop of Lincoln, and one of the chief Englishmen who opposed the filling of the offices of the Church with foreigners. He had been tutor to the children of De Montfort.

(iii) The Earl of Gloucester was leader of the barons along with Earl Simon, and it was these two nobles who summoned the Parliament of 1265. But a quarrel broke out between them, and they separated.

15 Social Facts—Even as early as the beginning of this century, the monasteries of the English Church had been tried and found wanting. The pauper, the leper, and the fugitive slave were crowding into the growing cities, and “multiplying with terrible rapidity.” In this crisis of English civilisation, the Mendicant Friars arose to meet the new difficulties by new measures. They invaded every parish in England “where there was work neglected or work to be done,” and their success was greatest among merchants, thinkers, and the inhabitants of towns—Manufactures took a new departure. The Flemings brought in the manufacture of linen from Flanders, the people of Newcastle received from the king a licence to dig for coal, and many improvements in the arts of living were introduced. Merchants from Lombardy settled in London, engaged in the business of banking, and laid the foundation of the fame of the banking community which is called Lombard Street to this day.

(i) The most important order of Begging Friars was the Franciscans or Grey Friars. They were founded by St. Francis of Assisi (in Italy) in 1210. The others were the Dominicans or Black Friars, the Carmelites or White Friars, and the Hermit Brothers, or Augustinians or Austin Friars. Monks were quite independent of Episcopal control,—that is, of the bishop of the diocese in which they laboured.

(ii) “There are few grander pages in history than the record of the privations and sufferings by which the Franciscans triumphed over public opinion in England. Taking no thought for the morrow, living on meagre pittancees often of the most repulsive food, huddled together that they might fight through the bitter winters by animal warmth, walking barefoot through deep snow, tried by all the diseases which austerities can induce in weak frames, disliked, envied, and annoyed by the established orders, sustained through every difficulty by the faith whose inner life is the miraculous, these men retrieved two generations to the Church and renewed decaying learning.”—PEARSON.

(iii) Roger Bacon (d. 1292) was a Franciscan monk. He made many discoveries in science, and is said to have invented gunpowder, magnifying glasses, etc.

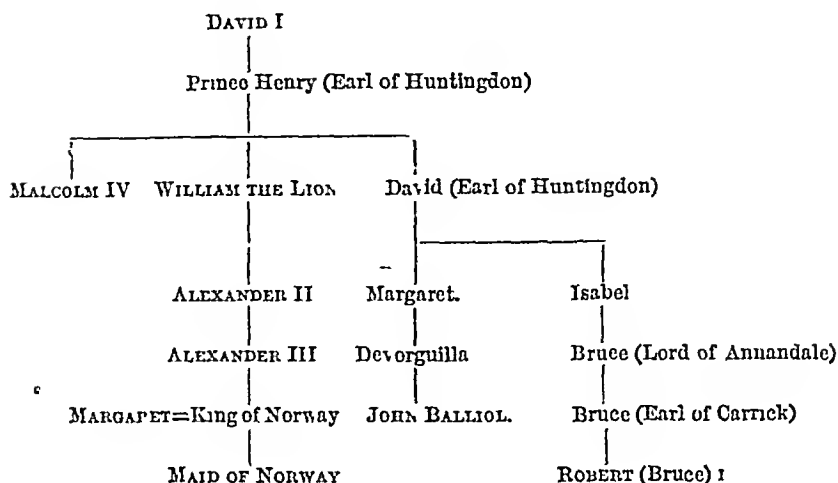
(iv) In this reign candles were used instead of slips of wood, tiles took the place of thatch, leaden water pipes came into use. Westminster Abbey was rebuilt.

(v) “England looks on the thirteenth century as her great architectural age, the age of her great lawyers and some of her greatest divines.”—STUBBS.

16 Scotland to 1249—William the Lion was succeeded by his son Alexander II, a boy of sixteen, in 1214. In the constitutional struggle

between the English barons and King John, Alexander had taken the side of the barons, who promised him, in exchange for his support, the annexation of Cumberland and Northumberland to the Scottish kingdom. When Henry III succeeded to the throne of England, he naturally demurred to this grant, but at length agreed to give the Scottish king certain manors in these two counties, to be held "not in sovereignty, but in feudal property." The Cumberland estates—Penrith, Scotby, and others—were to be held on condition of the King of Scots delivering every year a falcon at the gate of Carlisle Castle.—In the year 1221, Alexander II married Joan (or Janc), the eldest daughter of King John, and sister of Henry III. There were about this time in Scotland two sources of discontent. One was that there was no heir to the Scottish crown, the other, that there was no fixed boundary between Scotland and England, and no settled peace on any of its borders. To remedy the first, Robert Bruce, Lord of Annandale, and grandson of Prince David (Earl of Huntingdon), the younger brother of William the Lion, was chosen heir to the crown of Scotland. The second kept the Scottish kings in a state of perpetual anxiety and possible warfare. In 1242, a quarrel between the followers of Bysset, a Norman chief, and the retainers of the Lord of Athole led to the interference of Henry III of England. The head of the Byssets found refuge at the court of Henry, and appealed to him as lord-paramount of Scotland. An English force was marched to the border, a Scottish force of about one hundred thousand men crossed into England. But "there was no fighting," and the Treaty of Newcastle patched up all differences. Alexander II died of fever in the year 1249, "in the small barren island of Kerrera, which fronts the beautiful Bay of Oban," in Argyllshire. He was then on an expedition against the Norse Lord of Argyll and the Isles.

PEDIGREE OF THE BALLIOLS AND BRUCES



(i) To the outlying provinces of Scotland the Scottish kings had titles which they were not strong enough to make permanently effective. North of the Tay they had very little power, and the representative of the old Mormaors of Ross was strong enough to make war on Alexander — In the West Highlands, the Norsemen were stronger than he — In the south, in Galloway, the ruling family sought an alliance with England. But Alan of Galloway was made Lord High Constable of Scotland, and this had the result of averting petty war.

(ii) Bysset was a Norman chief who held broad lands round Loch Ness. In a tournament at Haddington, one of the Byssets was unhorsed by the young Lord of Athole. Athole was slain by a follower of the Bysset family, and his horse burned. The estates of the Byssets were forfeited, and the head of the house fled to the English Court.

(iii) By the Treaty of Newcastle, the son and heir of Alexander II was to marry Margaret, daughter of Henry III of England.

(iv) The Lord of the Isles formed an alliance with the King of Norway.

SHORT CHRONOLOGY AND SUMMARY OF HENRY III'S REIGN

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| <p>1216 (a) Henry III. is crowned
(b) He does homage to the Pope's Legate</p> <p>1217 (a) Fair of Lincoln.
(b) Hubert de Burgh defeats the French fleet off Dover
(c) Treaty of Lambeth is signed and Louis leaves England</p> <p>1219 (a) The Earl Marshal dies
(b) Peter des Roches Pandulf and Hubert become the king's guardians.</p> <p>1227 (a) Henry declares himself of age
(b) Continues Hubert as Justiciar</p> <p>1229 Archbishop Stephen Langton dies</p> <p>1232 (a) Fall of Hubert de Burgh (Beginning of 26 years of bad government)¹
(b) Peter des Roches gives offices to Poitevins</p> <p>1236 (a) Henry marries Eleanor of Provence.
(b) The Provençals are loaded with offices and favours</p> <p>1238 Henry marries his sister Eleanor to Simon de Montfort.</p> | <p>1244 Meeting of Earls Barons and Bishops who demand control over the appointment of ministers Are refused.</p> <p>1254 Two knights of the Shire are summoned to Parliament by royal writ for the first time</p> <p>1255 Parliament again demands control over the appointment of ministers Is refused a second time</p> <p>1258 (a) The Mad Parliament at Oxford.
(b) The Provisions of Oxford</p> <p>1264. The Mise of Amiens²</p> <p>1265 (a) First Parliament containing two knights from each shire, and also deputies from cities and boroughs
(b) Quarrel between De Montfort and Gloucester
(c) Battle of Evesham</p> <p>1266 Dictum de Kenilworth restores power to the king</p> <p>1270 Prince Edward goes on Seventh Crusade</p> <p>1272. Death of Henry III</p> |
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IMPORTANT CONTEMPORARY EVENTS

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| <p>1216 20 Fifth Crusade</p> <p>1223 Inquisition established by Gregory IX.</p> <p>1247 Hansa League formed</p> <p>1248 54 Sixth Crusade</p> <p>1249 Alexander II of Scotland dies Is succeeded by Alexander III</p> | <p>1251. Alexander III marries Margaret, daughter of Henry III</p> <p>1270 (a) Seventh Crusade
(b) Louis IX (St Louis) of France dies Is succeeded by Philip the Third.</p> |
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¹ The period of Henry's personal administration is one long series of impolitic and unprincipled acts.—STUBBS.

² The disputes between Henry and the Barons were laid before Louis IX (St Louis) of France. His decision, given at Amiens freed Henry from the Provisions of Oxford.

ENGLAND UNDER ANGEVIN RULE, 1145-1272.

1. **Political.**—The strong reign of law begun and built up by Henry II did not discourage but rather tended to strengthen free local government. The loss of Normandy in the time of John compelled even the Normans to feel that they were Englishmen, and the patriotic action of Earl Simon, in his endeavours to give England a true parliamentary representation, helped to weld the different parts of the country into one, and to make it feel and think of itself as a whole. The struggle of Parliament against the king on the question as to who should have the power of appointing the Ministers of the Crown, went on for a long time, and, in the end, the king succeeded in retaining the power of appointing them. But Parliament succeeded in making these Ministers accountable to the nation, and thus the real political power began to settle in the hands of the Parliament.

2. **The Church.**—The Church grew in power and wealth during this period. The noble stand made by such men as Archbishop Stephen Langton, for the liberties of the realm, and by such men as Bishop Hugh of Lincoln, for the rights of the Church, strengthened the Church of England in the respect both of high and low. The coming of the friars proved to be the greatest possible benefit to the poor of the country. They more than made up for the laziness and self-indulgence of the monk and the parish priest, and brought help and consolation to the starving, the rich, and the dying, both in villages and in cities. They incited Englishmen also to all kinds of good works—founding schools and hospitals, building churches, and freeing slaves. The friars also gave lectures at Oxford, and in time, by virtue of a Bull from the Pope, these friar-schools grew into the famous University of Oxford, which may be said to have been founded in the year 1190.

(i) "The friars were the last helpful gift of the mediæval Church to the world. Like the old monks in their self-abnegation, and in their complete renunciation of the pleasures and interests of the world, the friars introduced an entirely new element into the ecclesiastical system. The monk stood apart from humanity for his own soul's welfare, crucifying the flesh in order that the spirit might live, and teaching indirectly by example, and not, except accidentally, by direct word or guidance. The friar's work was carried on, not in retired cloisters, but in the busy haunts of men. He lived not for himself, but for others. Wherever men were most wretched, stricken down by the most loathsome of diseases, or pinched and hunger-starved by famine, there the little mission chapel of the friars was raised"—GARDINER.

(i) In King Alfred's time, the means of learning at Oxford were known as "The School" or "The Schools", and of these the Pope's Bull made a *Studium Generale* (General Study) or *University of Oxford*. (Edward III gave a Great Charter to the Students in 1355.)

(ii) The most celebrated man at Oxford in the thirteenth century was Roger Bacon (died 1294), who taught science,—especially optics, is said to have invented gun powder, and received, for his great learning, the title of Doctor Admirabilis.

3 Towns and Commerce—London was now by far the largest and wealthiest city in England. It had been established as the capital in 1156, and, twenty years after, London Bridge—the stone bridge which was destined to become famous both in trade and in the history of the city—was begun. Parliament or the Great Council frequently meets in London, and the growing prosperity of the city is marked by the founding of trade-guilds and craft-guilds. The great market of London—Cheapside—was growing to be the best attended market in the kingdom.—The other towns of England,—Winchester, Exeter, and Bristol in the west,—Canterbury, Yarmouth, and Lincoln in the east, were all prospering in their own trade.

(i) The first London Bridge took 33 years to build.

(ii) The word *cheap* means market, from the Saxon *ceapian*, to buy. The streets running into the Cheap took their names from the articles sold in them. Thus we have Bread Street (where Milton was born long after, in 1608), and, opposite it, Milk Street. The eastern end of the Cheap is still called the "Poultry."

(iii) Winchester had a large wine trade, Worcester a large market for wheat. Stourbridge the largest fair in England. Bristol was the great seaport of the west, Yarmouth of the east. York was the capital of the North, Norwich the centre of the manufacture of woollens.

4. Social Conditions—In this century, ordinary arable land was let at sixpence an acre, it was generally worth fourteen years' purchase, and might be bought at from six shillings to eight shillings per acre. If we estimate the corn and labour given by a serf to his lord, we shall find it to amount to about nine shillings a year. When a labourer was hired by the day, he received twopenny a day, women got a penny, and boys a halfpenny a day. A carpenter received threepence a day, a superior carpenter in London would get as much as fivepence.—Meat sold for a farthing a pound, and a strong pair of boots could be bought for two shillings.—The houses of villagers were mean and 'dirty'. The better class were built of timber, those of the peasants of posts plastered with clay or mud. The sleeping-rooms were under the roof, and reached by a ladder. There were no chimneys, and the smoke escaped by the door or window. Lights there were none—except the light of the fire, as candles were much too dear for ordinary use. The only articles of furniture of any value were a few copper or brass pots. The rich, on the other

hand, had numerous luxuries. The population of the country during this period seems to have reached the number of 3,000,000.

(i) A serf had "to pay a quarter of seed wheat at Michaelmas, a peck of wheat, four bushels of oats, and three hens on November 12, and at Christmas a cock and two hens, and twopennyworth of bread. He is to plough, sow, and till half an acre of his lord's land, and give his services, as he is bidden by the bailiff, except on Sundays and feast days. He is not to marry son or daughter, to sell ox, calf, horse, or colt, to cut down oak or ash, without the lord's consent."—ROGERS

(ii) "The Bishop of Hereford, Srinfield, has a palace at Hereford, a house in Worcester, and a house in London. He has many manor houses, at each of which he has a farm. He has stables for many horses, kennels for his hounds, and mews for his hawks. His kitchens reek with every variety of food, his cellars are filled with wine, and his spice-tries with foreign luxuries. He brews and he bakes, and he makes his own candles. He is constantly moving from manor house to manor house, and the domestic utensils, the brass pots, and the earthenware jugs are always moving with him. At each of his manor houses the bishop's hall is his feudal court. Here he sits in baronial state to receive the homage of tenants, to sentence ecclesiastics to penalties for offences against the canon law, to threaten or excommunicate lay offenders against public morals. The manor house was also, for the most part, a hall. One private chamber was allotted to the lord of the house. The cook had his kitchen, a separate but adjacent building. There was the sewery, and there was the buttery. But the courts were held, the audiences were given, the guests were dined, the wine was drunk, and, as night ended the solemn feast or the Lenten fasting, all slept on the wooden floor of the hall, strewn with dry rushes in winter, and green fodder in summer—with hay or with straw.—KNIGHT

Serfer means farther. He was the officer who arranged the feast and served up the dishes.

5 **Language**—The intermixture of Danish and of Norman-French with pure native English had had, among other things, the effect of helping the English language to get rid of many of its inflections. This made it easier for the Norman part of the population to speak.—Three well-marked and distinct dialects of English are mentioned by contemporary writers as the most prominent of all the dialects spoken in the different parts of the kingdom. These were the Northern, Midland, and Southern dialects. The Northern dialect had adopted a large number of Danish words, and had, speaking generally, elung to hard sounds.

The Southern dialect had been the most conservative of the three both in its grammar and in its vocabulary. The Midland dialect had dropped most of its inflections, and had been gradually growing to be the parent of our modern English, which, in style, in grammar, and in the words it employs, is more like the Midland dialect than any other. The following is a fair specimen of thirteenth-century English —

Hunger wex in lond Chanaan
And his x sunes Jacob for-ðan
Sente in to Egypt to bringen corne
He bilefe at hom ðe was gungest boren

Hunger waxed in the land (of) Canaan,
and Jacob for that (reason) sent his ten
sons into Egypt to bring corn, he re-
mained at home that was youngest born

(i) The characteristic of the Danish words adopted in the North is their hard consonants. Thus we have *Kirk* (in Kirkby, etc.) for *church*, *bank* for *bench*, etc.

(ii) In the foregoing extract the chief grammatical peculiarity is the use of the Danish *to* as the sign of the infinitive, *along with* the Saxon *en*.

6 Literature—The most interesting writer of this period is Geoffrey of Monmouth (died 1154). He wrote in Latin a "Chronicle or History of the Britons"—which consisted of a collection of all the traditions and tales he could gather about the old British (or Welsh) kings, the old British heroes and gods. Transcendent above them all stands out the heroic figure of Arthur—the "blameless king," the flower of British knighthood and chivalry. Geoffrey gives the stories of a long line of imaginary kings stretching far back into antiquity until we reach Brutus, the son of Aeneas, who is said to have led a colony into Britain. This book has been for centuries a quarry for romancers and poets, and Tennyson in his "Idylls of the King" (Arthur), has made the most skilful use of it. Wace, a canon of Jersey, turned parts of it into French verse, and Layamon, a priest of Elnley-on-Severn, translated this poem into English verse, under the title of "The Brut" (=Brutus). But the most characteristic English poem of this century is the *Ormulum*, by a priest called Orm (or Ormin), a canon of the Order of St. Augustine. This poem was probably written about the year 1215. It is written in an English that has lost most of its inflections, and that is as easy to understand as Chaucer, who wrote about a century and a half after the time of Orm. It is further remarkable for an original style of spelling, in which no one seems to have followed the author.

Þiss boc iss nemmedd Ormulnm
Forr þu att Orm þatt wrohte

"This book is called *Ormulum*, because Orm wrought (=produced) it."

Another celebrated writer in English was Robert of Gloucester, who wrote lives of the Saints and a History of England in verse.

(i) Geoffrey of Monmouth (died 1154) wrote his "History of the Britons" in Latin, and it was soon translated into French, English, and Welsh. It became the "great fountain head of romance." Sir Thomas Malory, in his book on Arthur and the Knights of the Round Table ("Le Morte d'Arthur"), drew largely from it, and Tennyson has drawn largely from Malory.

(ii) The peculiarity of Orm's spelling consists in the fact that every short vowel has the consonant that follows it *doubled*. Thus he writes *pann* for *pan*, and *pan* for *pane*.

PLAN OF DATES
THIRTEENTH CENTURY

1200 Marries Isabella Angoulême	1201	1202	1203 Disappearance of Arthur of Brittany	1204 Philip II takes Mandy, Maine
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1210 John visits Ireland				
1211 Prince of Snow submits to John	1212	1213 John becomes the Pope's vassal French fleet beaten at Damme First English naval victory First representative assembly meets at St Albans	1221	
1214 Count of Bonvines	1215 THE GREAT CHARTER.	1216 Louis of France lands in England Death of John HENRY III.	1224	
1217 Richard of Lincoln defeats French fleet.	1218	1219	1227 Henry declares himself of age Hubert Justiciar	

1240				
1241	1242	1243	1251	
1244 Parliament demands ap- pointment of Ministers	1245	1246	1254 Two Knights of the Shire summoned to Parliament for the first time.	Parliament appoints Justiciars
1247	1248	1249	1257	The Magna Carta Provisions

1270				
1271	1272 Death of Henry III EDWARD I	1273	1281	
1274	1275 First Statute of West- minster	1276	1284 Statute of Wales	Second Statute of Wales
1277	1278 Writs of Quo Warranto issued	1279 Statute of Mortmain.	1287	

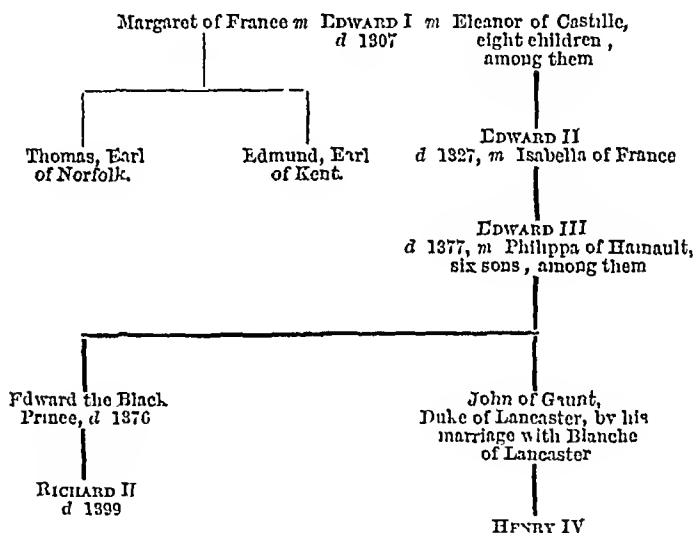
1205	1206 Stephen Langton Archbishop of Canterbury	1207	1208 Ireland under the Pope's Interdict.	1209 John excommunicated
		1230		
	1223	1231	1232 Fall of Hubert de Burgh Fosterer to the favourites.	1233
	1226	1234	1235	1236 Henry marries Eleanor of Provence
	1229 Death of Archbishop Becket, then Langton	1237	1238 Henry's sister, Eleanor marries Simon de Montfort.	1239
		1260		
	1253	1261	1262	1263
and init-	1255	1264 The Mise of Amiens.	1265 First Parliament with deputies from cities and boroughs Battle of Evesham.	1266 The Dictum de Kenilworth.
at d.	1259	1267	1268 Prince Edward takes the Cross and goes on the Seventh Crusade	1269
		1290 Statute of Quia Emptores Exemption of the Jews.		
	1283	1291 Acceptance by Scottish Barons of Edward's Overlordship	1292 Edward selects John Balliol as King of Scotland	1293
Fest- ter	1286	1294	1295 "FIRST COMPLETE and MODEL PARLIAMENT"	1296
	1289	1297 CONFIRMATIO CHARTARUM.	1298 Wallace defeated at Falkirk.	1299 Boniface VIII claims Scotland a Papal Fief

BOOK IV.

THE LATER ANGEVIN KINGS

CALLED ALSO PLANTAGENETS

THE ENGLISH (ANGEVIN) KINGS FROM 1307 TO 1413



(i) Edmund, Earl of Lancaster, was the second son of Henry III, and the younger brother of Edward I. His great-grand daughter was Blanche, Duchess of Lancaster, who gave her fortune and title to John of Gaunt.

(ii) Richard II had no children.

(iii) John of Gaunt was the fourth son of Edward III.

CHAPTER I

EDWARD THE FIRST

(OF WESTMINSTER)

Born 1239 Succeeded (at the age of 33) 1272 Died 1307.

Reigned 35 Years

EDWARD I (called *Longshanks* from the excessive length of his legs) was born at Westminster in 1239. He was the eldest son of Henry III of England and Eleanor of Provence. He married (1) Eleanor, daughter of Alphonso X of Castile, in 1254, when he was only fifteen, and (2) Margaret, sister of Philip IV of France, when he was fifty. By his first marriage he had four sons and four daughters. The youngest of the four sons was Edward II, the others died before they could come to the throne. By his second marriage he had two sons, Thomas, Earl of Norfolk, and Edmund, Earl of Kent.

CONTEMPORARY SOVEREIGNS

SCOTLAND MARGARET, 1286

JOHN BALLIOL, 1292

ROBERT I 1306

FRANCE PHILIP III 1270

PHILIP IV 1285

1 Edward I's Reign—This reign is one of the greatest and most important that England has ever seen. It was filled with great attempts and great successes. It saw Parliament used for the first time in the history of the country as an instrument of government, it saw great and enduring reforms in law and in the tenure of land, it saw the completed conquest of Wales, and the attempted conquest of Scotland. The chief purposes of Edward's reign were two: first, to make the government of the country thoroughly efficient, and, secondly, to bring under one firm rule the whole of the British Isles,

(i) The first complete and Model Parliament met in 1295

(ii) The chief acts relating to the tenure of land, etc., in this reign are The Statute of Mortmain the Statute of Winchester and the Statutes of Westminster, the First, the Second, and the Third.

(iii) The Conquest of Wales was completed in 1283

(iv) The Conquest of Scotland was never completed, though that country was invaded three times during this reign

2 Edward I, 1272-1307—Edward was a man of thirty-three when he was proclaimed king, and thirty-five when he ascended the throne. He had shown skill, courage, and determination in the war with Simon de Montfort, and he showed the same qualities in the Crusade. When the enterprise was abandoned by the French, on the death of King Louis, he declared he would go on to the Holy Land, should only his horse-boy go with him. When a Mussulman tried to assassinate him with a poisoned dagger, he had the poisoned flesh cut out, and went on with his fighting. On his way home, he visited Gascony and suppressed a rebellion there. He was crowned with his Queen at Westminster in the year 1274. The coronation was unprecedented in splendour, bonfires blazed upon every high hill, great feasts were given, the fountains flowed with red and with white wine, and five hundred war-horses were let loose, as a gift to the populace to be the prizes of all who could catch them.

The Regents during the absence of Edward were Walter, Archbishop of York, Roger, Lord Mortimer, and Robert Burnell, the Chancellor of the kingdom.

3 Edward's Reforms, 1274-1290 (i)—In 1275 was passed the First Statute of Westminster. It fixed the proper amounts of feudal burdens on land (aids, etc.), and declared that all elections to Parliament should be perfectly free.—In 1278 was passed the Statute of Gloucester to regulate the proceedings of the County and Manor Courts, and to ascertain by what warrant or title many barons held portions of the crown-lands. The writ issued to ascertain this was called Quo Warranto, that is, "By what Warrant" certain lands are held, etc. Its purpose was to bring as much land as possible under the Crown and under the Crown Courts and judges. The clergy were at this time the owners of more than one fourth of the land of England, and the Church was every day and every week increasing its possessions in land. This it did in two ways the

First Statute
of West-
minster
1275

Quo
Warranto
1278

clergy did what they could to persuade landowners when dying to leave their property to the Church, and many persons, to escape from feudal obligations, would make a sham surrender of their lands to some religious body, and then receive it back upon easy terms. To meet this difficulty Edward had the Statute of Mortmain passed. Statute of Mortmain 1279.

(i) Elections were not to be "troubled by force, craft, or threat."

(ii) When John de Warrenne, Earl of Surrey, was asked in Court to produce his title-deeds to his land, he drew his sword—it was old and rusty—and said, "Here, sirs, is my warrant! My ancestors came over with William the Bastard and won their lands with the sword, and with the sword I mean to keep them against all who try to seize them"—And a doggerel verse was sung by the young gentlemen of Edward's own Court—

The King wants our gold into his hands,
The Queen she covets our fertile lands
And the prying writ "Quo Warranto"
Makes in this realm a vast ado!

(iii) Under this writ the Courts also inquired into local privileges, such as the right to hunt the cat, the fox, the hare, the right to have a private gallows, etc. This latter right was greatly valued, as the property of the person hanged was diverted from the Crown and came to the owner of the private gallows.

Mortmain—the dead hand. Property was in dead hands or in hands that could not alienate"—such as corporations. Alienation in mortmain is a giving away of lands to a corporation, ecclesiastical or temporal that cannot give it away or dispose of it again.

(iv) Land in mortmain escaped the burden of many feudal dues and payments.

4. Edward's Reforms, 1274-1290 (ii)—In 1285 was passed the Second Statute of Westminster, which enabled landed estates to be settled in one family, and to go down from father to son for ever, thus regarding the actual holder of the property as merely a life-tenant, and preventing him from parting with it—The Third Statute of Westminster gave power to every franklin or freeman to sell his land, or any part of it, but enacted that the purchaser is to hold the land he has bought of the Overlord himself and not of the seller. The effect of this Statute was to increase the number of tenants-in-chief, that is, of owners who held directly from the king—The Statute of Winchester provided for the proper defence of the country, and also for the police of towns and parishes. In connection with the defence of the country in time of war, the most important measure adopted

Second Statute
of Westminster
1285

Statute of
Winchester
1285.

by Edward was the compulsory measure regarding knighthood. By this, all persons who owned land to the annual value of £20 were obliged to take up their knighthood—that is, to bind themselves to serve the king during war, either in person or by deputy, and to pay all the aids, reliefs, and other charges that a knight is bound to pay—And another very important law-reform was carried out in the arrangement by which the Court of Chancery and the Court of King's Bench were always to follow the person of the king, while the Exchequer Court and the Court of Common Pleas were to remain stationary at Westminster

(i) Estates that could not be sold were said to be entailed. This arrangement was carried out in the Statute *De Donis Conditionalibus* (= Concerning Gifts on Condition)

(ii) The clause in the Third Statute of Westminster enacting that portions of land held as sub-tenancies should be held, not from the person who granted the subtenancy, but from the Overlord, was called the *Quia Emptores* (= "Inasmuch as Purchasers"), because these were the two first words of the clause, which was of course written in Latin.

(iii) To carry out the Statute of Winchester, Justices of the Peace were appointed for the first time. (They were called "Guardians of the Peace", the term J P did not come into use until the reign of Edward III.) The same Statute ordered roads between market-towns to be cleared of wood to the breadth of 200 feet—or a bow shot, on either side, to prevent robbers lurking behind a tree. What arms each man was to keep at home was also provided for in this Statute.

(iv) The Court of Exchequer heard all cases that touched the revenue of the kingdom. The King's Bench heard suits in which the king was concerned. The Court of Common Pleas heard suits between private individuals.

5 Llewellyn and Wales—Since the time of Edward the Confessor, the Welsh princes and chieftains had always been considered vassals of the kings of England, but both their obedience and their tribute had been intermittent, unsteady, and unequal, and they were generally paid only to those kings who were strong enough to exact them by force. Edward summoned the chief prince, Llewellyn, to London, to pay his homage, Llewellyn politely but firmly declined to come. The king collected a large army, marched into Wales, took Llewellyn prisoner, and brought him to London. He was released upon a promise to pay a heavy tribute, but the Welsh rose again under David, the brother of Llewellyn,—a man who had fought on the English side, and who owed much to King Edward. In this rising Llewellyn was killed, and David was

tried for high treason and sentenced to be hanged, drawn, and quartered. A prophecy of Merlin, the Welsh soothsayer, had been current, to the effect that, when English money became round, the Prince of Wales should be crowned in London, and Llewellyn's head, crowned with a wreath, was set upon the Tower, in mocking fulfilment of the ancient prophecy

(i) Edward annexed Wales, divided it into counties, and placed it under English law. He also granted charters to towns, and gave every kind of encouragement to trade and commerce. All this was done by the Statutum Gwallie. The wildest districts of North Wales were also secured by the strong castles of Conway and Carnarvon—still noble monuments of the greatness of the “greatest of the Plantagenets”

(ii) “The Welsh settled down peaceably on their lands, and gradually adopted the English customs. Of any massacre of the bards, or any measures taken to repress them, history knows nothing. Never was conquest more merciful than Edward's.”
—PEARSON.

6 The Prince of Wales—The independence of Wales was now gone, and it became one with England. Edward I's policy was to give up all thought of increasing his foreign domains, to make his empire compact within the four seas, to subdue Scotland and Wales, and to make the kingly power felt and respected in every corner of this island of Great Britain. But though Wales was thoroughly subdued, Edward was desirous of attracting to himself and his family the willing loyalty of the Welsh, and he therefore promised to the Welsh chieftains that they should have as a ruler, “a prince born in Wales, who could speak never a word of English, and who never did wrong to man, woman, or child.” This new Welsh prince was his own infant son, who was born in the strong castle of Carnarvon in 1284. The Welsh chiefs did homage to him, a Welsh nurse and Welsh servants were given to him, and ever since this time the eldest son of the King or Queen of England has been called the *Prince of Wales*.

In 1301, when Edward of Carnarvon was seven years of age, he came to Chester, and, with the silver rod of the principality of Wales in his hands, he received the homage of all Welsh freeholders.

7 Expulsion of the Jews—The Jews had long been the bankers and money-brokers of England, and, it being considered unchristian to charge interest (or *usury*), the Jews had thus had a monopoly of the trade in money-lending, and had become, in many parts of the island, enormously rich. They were from time to time accused of

horrible crimes, and the most usual accusation against them was that they captured little Christian boys at their great feasts, and performed human sacrifices. These abominable stories were generally believed by the common people. The Jews lived in a special quarter of each town, called Jewry, and were under the immediate protection of the king, and the law considered them to be the king's slaves and chattels. Many a time had they assisted the kings of England with money, when the exchequer had been drained by foreign wars. But the popular feeling grew stronger and stronger against them, until at last Edward, after trying in vain to induce them to accept Christianity, was obliged to expel them from the kingdom. They had ^{Expulsion of} ^{the Jews} two months' notice, 16,000 of them left this country for 1290 France,—and from the reign of Edward I to the time of Cromwell the Protector, no Jewish foot touched English ground.

(i) Every opportunity of massacring the Jews was taken hold of, chiefly in order to be able to seize on "the untold wealth in Jewry," or "the incomparable treasure found in the Jewry." The Jews were accused of all sorts of possible and impossible crimes. In 1256, seventy-one Jews were found guilty of crucifying a Christian boy at Lincoln, and thirty-six of them were hanged. (On this is based the story of "Little Hew of Lincoln," in Chaucer's *Canterbury Tales*.)

The special quarter of a town where the Jews lived was called the "Jewry." All Jews had to be indoors at a certain time had to wear a badge or a dress of a certain colour, and the gates of the Jewry were locked at night.

(ii) The Jews were allowed to take all their movables with them. More than 16,000 left the country, and were allowed by Philip IV to settle at Amlens. They were absent from England for 350 years.

(iii) The Jews had always been an excellent source of income to the kings of England. Their expulsion compelled the kings to go oftener to Parliament for money, and thus increased the power of Parliament.

8 Edward and Scotland—The Scotch kings had been accustomed to do homage to the kings of England, but only for the lands they held of them in fief within the realm of England. These lands were Tynedale, Penrith, Cumberland, and Huntingdon. Alexander III of Scotland had left but one grandchild. She was the daughter of Eric, the Norwegian king, and was commonly called the "Maid of Norway." It was proposed that she should marry the eldest son of Edward I, but on condition that Scotland should remain a free and separate kingdom. This hope, however, died with the death of the little princess, and the succession

passed to the line of David, a brother of William the Lion. David had had three daughters, and there were three claimants—descendants of these daughters—to the throne of Scotland. John Balliol, Earl of Galloway, was descended from the eldest, Robert Bruce, Lord of Annandale, from the second, and John Hastings, Lord of Abergavenny, from the third. There were in all thirteen claimants or “pretenders”, but the foremost were John Balliol and Robert Bruce, men of Norman descent, who held lands both in England and in Scotland. An appeal was made to Edward, who went down to the Border and met the Scottish Estates (or Parliament) at Norham Castle, on the 10th of May 1291. Edward began by demanding that they should acknowledge him as their “Sovereign Lord,” and that the royal castles should be placed in his hands. This, after some delay, was conceded.

Edward I.
Overlord of
Scotland
1291

Norham Castle stands on the Tweed near Berwick

(i) Alexander III of Scotland had married Margaret, the sister of Edward I, and the “Maid of Norway” was therefore Edward’s grandniece. Edward tried to unite England and Scotland by inducing the Scots to consent to a marriage between his son, Edward of Carnarvon, and the “Maid of Norway,” his cousin.

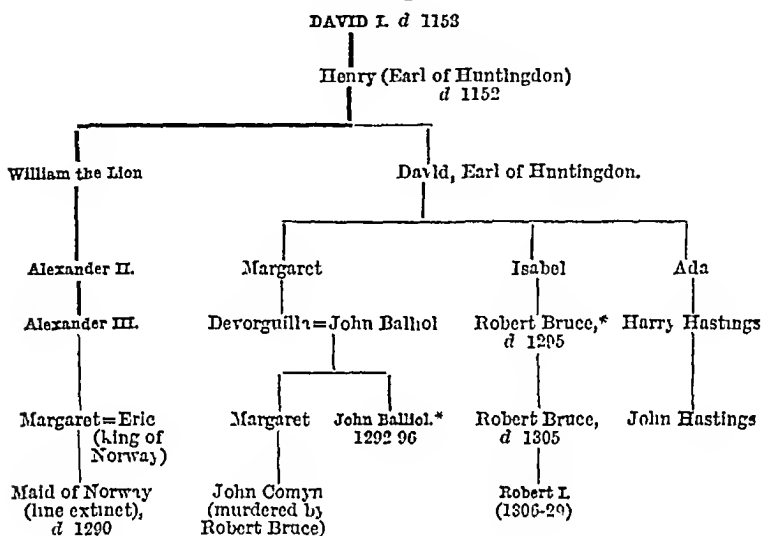
(ii) The rights of Overlordship held by the English kings as regards Scotland had been sold by Richard I to William the Lion.

9. John Balliol, King of Scotland—A joint body of English and Scotch commissioners was then appointed, and this commission, after sitting for eighteen months, declared in favour of John Balliol. Balliol accordingly had to do homage, to style himself the hegeman and vassal of Edward, and to admit in express words that this homage was not merely done for lands which he held in England, but “for the whole kingdom of Scotland.” Terrible mortifications were now in store for him. Appeals could now be made to the King of England and to the English courts, and Balliol was obliged to attend them in person. When attending the courts, no regard was paid to his high rank, he was treated just as if he had been a private individual. Once he had to travel all the way from Scotland to London to answer a petty appeal about a cask of wine which had been supplied to King Alexander, and for which the wine merchant swore he had not been paid. Balliol was compelled to pay him. This kind of

Scotland
a Fief of
England
1292

indignity led his subjects to give him the name of the *Toom Tabard*¹ He returned to Scotland burning with indignation, and determined to aid his subjects in throwing off the English yoke (1293)

THE CLAIM TO THE CROWN OF SCOTLAND



* (i) It was these two men who were competitors for the Crown in 1292

(ii) Balliol was only *grandson*, though of the eldest daughter Bruce was the son of the second daughter This was one of the points made by Bruce

10 Edward and France —Edward was a vassal of the king of France for the fief of Gascony, and a quarrel soon arose out of this relationship Some English sailors had been murdered in a quarrel on the coast of France, and the men of the Cinque Ports had hanged some Frenchmen in retaliation² The French sailors put to sea, captured an English vessel, and hanged at the yard-arm every man on board, and sailed up and down within sight of the English coast with the bodies dangling from the spurs, each with a dog at his feet A fierce war, without any permission having been asked of the two kings, followed, and a pitched battle was fought off St Mathé, in

¹ The *empty coat* A *tabard* was an out-door coat (also a herald's coat) and the joke meant that Balliol was *clothes* and no more that there was no man inside

² This word comes from the Latin word *talis* like and the meaning of it is *like for like* The same idea is expressed in the Mosaic law of "an eye for an eye and a tooth for a tooth"

Brittany, on the 14th of April 1293 King Philip now took up the case, summoned Edward to appear at Paris, upon his refusal, declared his fief of Gaseony forfeited,¹ and marched in troops to take possession (1293)

(i) Edmund, the king's brother, was sent to Gaseony, the French king persuaded him to hand over the castles of Gaseony for six weeks, and promised to restore them at the end of that time

(ii) They were not restored The Scots allied themselves with the French, and France and England were at war for the next four years

11 The Great Parliament of 1295—This Parliament marks the highest point reached by the political reforms of Edward I. It was summoned in a legal and regular manner, no important person or town was left out, and the Three Estates of Clergy, Lords, and Commons were fully represented for the first time. Hence it has been called the "First Complete and Model Parliament." The working motto of Edward had become the maxim, "What toucheth all should be looked to by all." This Parliament was called by Edward because he found himself engaged in war with France, with Scotland, and with Wales, all at the same time. The Three Estates voted separately, and granted supply separately.

(i) Whereas, in 1283, representatives from only 21 boroughs had been summoned, in this parliament of 1295, writs were issued to 94

(ii) Just 30 years had passed since Simon de Montfort had summoned citizens and burgesses

(iii) The shape into which the English Constitution was moulded by Edward I. was the shape which it retained almost unaltered for two centuries

12 The English in Scotland—John Balliol now saw his opportunity, and made an alliance with France, and Edward marched northwards to invade Scotland. On the 30th of March 1296, he took the town of Berwick-on-Tweed "by force of arms, without tarrying." That is to say, his men butchered 8000 of the unresisting citizens, the town was ruined, and the "Alexandria of the North" sank into a petty seaport. Here he received the "defiance"² of Balliol. "The felon fool!" thundered the king, "if he will not come to us, we will go to him." The battle of Dunbar was lost by the Scotch, Edinburgh Castle was besieged, Stirling surrendered,

¹ Formerly *forfeaulted* i.e. lost by default.

² This is a technical term, to indicate that the vassal openly and publicly renounces his allegiance

“the garrison having run away, and left none but the porter, which did render the keys,” and at Montrose Balliol came in person, disrobed, dis-crowned, and with the white rod of penance in his hand, to beg for mercy “There came to him King John of Scotland to his mercy, and did render quietly the realm of Scotland, as he that had done amiss” King Edward carried back into England the Scottish crown and sceptre and “stone of destiny” It was upon this stone that the kings of Scotland sat when they were crowned It had been, the legend said, the pillow of Jacob when he saw angels ascending and descending from heaven, and where that stone was, there the Scotch should reign. The prophecy was fulfilled when James Stuart came to the throne of England, the stone still forms part of the coronation chair, and Queen Victoria sat over—if not upon it, when she was crowned in 1838

Balliol
deposed
1296

(i) The town of Berwick was sacked, the burghers massacred, and the “blood ran down the streets like a mill stream. It had been one of the most thriving ports of the time, full of the warehouses of rich Flanders merchants

(ii) John Balliol was kept in captivity for some years, “with a respectable household, and the right of going twenty miles out of town and was then allowed to retire to his property in France

The Stone of Destiny was taken from the Castle of Scone near Perth.

13 William Wallace—The government of Scotland was now intrusted to Warrenne, Earl of Surrey, and a Council of Regency—consisting of Englishmen—was appointed The Scottish nobles gradually came in, tendered their submission, and promised allegiance But there was one knight who was not seen in the court of Warrenne, who refused to come in, and who put himself at the head of a body of soldiers and outlaws This was Sir William Wallace Earl Warrenne met him on the 10th of September 1297, at Stirling Bridge The bridge was wide enough only to allow two horsemen to ride abreast, Wallace skilfully allowed half the English force to cross, and then he fell upon it and cut it to pieces The treasurer of the kingdom, Cressingham, was among the slain—a man so bitterly detested by the Scotch that they tanned his skin, and made bridles and purses out of it Wallace now marched south, ravaged Northumberland and Cumberland, and took the title of Guardian of the Kingdom¹ The king, who saw

Wallace
Warden of
Scotland
1297.

¹ *Custos Regni Scotie*

the critical state of affairs, raised a larger army than he had ever led before, and marched into Scotland. Well might Edward respect his new foe, Wallace was the first general that ventured to oppose half-armed peasant foot-soldiers to the mail-clad knights of feudalism.

(i) Warrenne was "Warden of Scotland," Cressingham "Treasurer of Scotland."

(ii) The full title taken by Wallace was "Warden of the Realm for King John."

14 The Battle of Falkirk—He forced Wallace to an engagement at Falkirk (July 1298), in which the half-armed Scottish farmers and peasants were defeated by the trained bowmen and heavy-armed knights of the English army. A union of the nobles under Bruce and Comyn continued the struggle, but in two years they were obliged to yield. Wallace would not, and did not yield, but continued to live the life of an outlaw, to carry on a guerilla¹ warfare, and to strike blows at the English troops whenever he had a chance. But, through the treachery of a fellow-countryman, he was at length captured, brought to London, tried for high treason, and put to death in the most barbarous manner at Tyburn Gate². His head, crowned in mockery with a wreath of laurel, was fixed upon London Bridge. His body was divided into four quarters, and these were sent to be exhibited in the market-places of Newcastle, Berwick, Perth, and Stirling.

Wallace
executed
1305.

(i) Wallace fled to France, where he lay in hiding for seven years. He returned in 1305.

Wallace, Wallis, Willis and *Wales* are all different forms of the same word.

(ii) Wallace protested rightly, but protested in vain, that he had never been the English king's subject, that he had made open and fair war upon him, and that he had all the rights that an honourable enemy had or ought to have.

(iii) "English policy desired, before it slew its victim, to brand him as a felon." "A man of rare capacity, he called the first army of independence, as it were, out of the earth, and gave body and enthusiasm to the war." —PEARSON.

15 Robert Bruce—Four months after, Robert Bruce, Earl of Carrick, was in arms. He was a young man of twenty-three, and grandson of the Bruce who had been a competitor for the throne with Balliol. In 1306, he had met John Comyn, the heir of the house of Balliol, in the church of the Minorites at Dumfries, and stabbed him.

¹ A Spanish word, which means a *little war*. It can generally be carried on only in mountainous countries.

² This gate stood where the Marble Arch now stands, at the north end of Hyde Park. Hence the neighbouring suburb is called Tyburnia.

to the heart in a quarrel. He immediately assumed the title of King, summoned the Scots to his standard, and was crowned as King Robert of Scotland on the 27th of March 1306. King Edward, upon this astonishing news, vowed a great vow that he would never rest until he had avenged the death of John Comyn, and, fearing he himself might die, he begged that his body might remain unburied until his vow was accomplished by his son. On the 3d of July 1307 he set out from Carlisle with the avowed purpose of ravaging Scotland with fire and sword, but he could hardly sit upon his horse, taking a whole day to ride five miles, and he died at Burgh-by-Sands, on Solway Water, within sight of Scotland, on the seventh day of the same month. With his dying breath, he charged his son Edward, upon pain of his curse, neither to bury his father's bones nor to be crowned himself until Scotland was utterly subdued.

(i) The crown was placed on his head by the Countess of March, for which offence she was afterwards exposed in an iron cage on the walls of Berwick.

(ii) "Edward swore upon two swans to take vengeance upon Robert Bruce for the outrage done to God and God's Church, this vow once accomplished, he would never again bear arms against Christians, but would set out to die in the Holy Land. Prince Edward followed by pledging himself never to sleep two nights in the same bed till he reached Scotland." —PEARSON

16 Confirmatio Chartarum —Edward was often hard pressed for money. In 1297 he had made up his mind to go to Flanders to fight Philip III, but he had no funds. He could not borrow from the Jews, as he had expelled them, he demanded from the clergy half their annual income, he made forced contributions of cattle and corn from the counties, and he raised the export duty on wool to six times its former amount. This was called the *male-tolte*, or "evil-toll." He ordered all the sheriffs of the counties to send him supplies of meat and grain, but he had not received the permission of Parliament for any one of these exactions. He sailed for Flanders, but the discontented barons summoned their friends to a meeting of Parliament in London, and told them to come in arms. The young Prince of Wales had been left behind as Regent, and this Parliament insisted on his confirming Magna Charta and also the Charter of the Forest. This document, which went by the name of the *Confirmatio Chartarum* was sent to Edward at Ghent, and the king found it only prudent to set his seal to it. Thus the great central

power—the power of the purse—was formally declared to be the property of Parliament, and of Parliament alone “With the reign of Edward,” says a great modern historian, “begins modern England, the England in which we live” From this time forward we have a long succession of demands for money made by kings, constantly met with demands for privileges made by their subjects, and in this way the power of mere force was gradually broken down No privilege, no money, no money without further privileges, no money without redress of grievances, no money voted beyond a single year, from one session of Parliament to another session,—these gradually became the foundations of English liberty and right

(i) The king could get no money from the clergy, as the Pope had forbidden them to make any grant to a layman without his consent For this, Edward practically outlawed the clergy, as he forbade the Chief Justice to hear any suit in which a clergyman was plaintiff

(ii) The *Confirmatio Chartarum* contained an article *De Tallagio non concedendo*, by which no kind of tax, duty, or tallage, could be levied except with the consent of Parliament.

(iii) By the articles added to the *Confirmatio Chartarum*, “the king renounced the right of taxing the nation without national consent”

(iv) The Charter of the Forest, passed in Henry III's time, had abolished punishments for slaying deer, etc

17 The Character of Edward I—Edward's great ambition was to be a model feudal knight He was framed by nature to be a great soldier,—tall, deep-chested, long of limb,¹ patient in hardship, and swift in action He was beloved by his soldiers and by the nation His English name, his English look (he had yellow hair), his dogged English temper and truthful English character, endeared him to all classes of the people He was not cruel, like his ancestors the Angevins, but always ready to forgive if an appeal was made “No man,” he said, “ever asked mercy of me, and was refused” He had, too, all the English love and tenderness of family affection He wept bitterly at the news of his father's death, he showed at the Battle of Lewes how he felt an insult to his mother, and when his dear wife's body was carried from Lincoln to Westminster, he planted crosses² at every place where his wife's bier rested, as memorials of his love and sorrow When, in violation of his promise to observe the Great

¹ Hence his nickname of *Longshanks*

² There was one which has since been restored, at *Charing Cross* London.

Charter, he had been trying to ruse money by exactions and extortions, and had been obliged to meet his nobles and people in Westminster Hall, he burst into tears, and frankly owned himself in the wrong

(i) His treatment of Wallace is a blot on his memory Towards his end, too, on nearing the Scottish border, the old Angevin fury broke out, and showed itself in his execution of the young and chivalrous Nigel Bruce, and in his vindictive orders regarding the disposal of his own body

(ii) Edward's motto was *PACTUM SERVA* ("Keep Troth"), and this was carved on his tomb in Westminster Abbey

(iii) Edward improved the coinage of the realm Up to his time the silver penny had been stamped with a deep cross, and, when change was wanted, it was broken into halves or quarters

18 Great Men—Among the great men of this reign, Edward I himself towers above them all easily first, both for his powers of ruling, and for his knowledge of law For the former he has been justly called "the greatest of the Plantagenets," for the latter he has been named the "English Justinian" Among the English subjects of Edward, the most prominent are Earl Warrenne, Humphrey Bohun, Earl of Hereford, Constable of England, and Roger Bigod, Earl of Norfolk, Marshal. The first of these was "Guardian of the Scottish Kingdom," the two last successfully resisted the illegal demands of the king They were ordered to go to Gascony to attack the French army, while the king himself was to operate in Flanders they refused, on the proper ground that they were only bound to follow the king's person. "Sir Earl!" cried Edward, "you shall either go or hang!" "Sir King!" replied the Marshal, "I will neither go nor hang!" Among Scotchmen, or, to speak more accurately, Normans who were resident in Scotland, the most distinguished are Robert Bruce, John Comyn "the Red," and William Wallace

(i) Hallam says, "I do not know that England has ever produced any patriots to whose memory she owes more gratitude than Bohun and Bigod"

(ii) The family of Bruce (more correctly De Brus) came over with William the Conqueror, and received large grants of land in Northumberland Bruce the Younger, who was the first Bruce to be crowned King of Scotland, was the grandson of the De Bruce who was the rival of John Balliol.

(iii) Sir William Wallace was the younger son of Wallace of Eldershe in Renfrewshire At the battle of Falkirk, he said to his men "I have brocht you to the ring, now dance gif ye can!"

(iv) John Comyn was Regent of Scotland for his uncle John Balliol. He was murdered by Robert Bruce in 1306

19 Social Facts—Wide forests and broad-spread fens continued to cover much of the face of England during this reign. Coal, brought from Newcastle, began to be burned in London, but the dirt produced by the smoke was vigorously objected to by the inhabitants, and its use was discontinued and prohibited by proclamation of the king as a nuisance in 1306. "Benefit of Clergy" was legally recognised. The population of the whole of England appears to have reached the number of 3,000,000, which is little more than half the number of persons in London at the present day.

(i) Windmills, spectacles, and looking glasses were introduced in this reign.

(ii) Paper was brought from the East.

(iii) If a man could read a verse in the Psalter (it was generally a verse in the 51st Psalm—which came to be known as "the neck verse") his life was spared, and he was only punished by being branded in the hand. That is to say, the criminal, being able to read, was regarded as being a clerk or cleric—as belonging to the clergy, and therefore entitled to the "Benefit of Clergy."

20 Scotland to 1286—Alexander II had no children by his first wife Joan, the daughter of King John of England. He had married again—Mary de Coucy, the daughter of a noble French house. Their son was Alexander III, who succeeded his father at the age of seven. "Mantled, sceptred, and crowned, he was seated on the mysterious Stone of Destiny, in front of the altar, at the east end of the church of Scone." Two years later, at the early age of ten, he was married to Margaret, the only daughter of Henry III of England—Shortly after Alexander came of age, he was obliged to defend his kingdom against a formidable invasion from Haco, king of Norway. The Norse fleet was driven on shore at Largs, the Scotch people attacked the crews, the king of Norway landed his men, and the Battle of Largs was fought. The Norsemen were defeated, and the result of this victory was that the Hebrides and the Isle of Man were annexed to the Crown of Scotland. Another result was that, in 1282, Alexander's only daughter, Margaret, was married to Eric, king of Norway. But this princess died the year after, leaving behind her a little girl, also called Margaret, and known in Scotland as the Maid of Norway. Alexander had, however, a son, but he died without issue in 1284. In 1285, the king married Joleta, a daughter of the Count de Dreux, but, early in the year 1286, riding in the dark on the rocky shore of Fife, between Burntisland and Kinghorn, his horse stumbled, and he himself was thrown over a cliff and killed on the spot.

(i) The De Coucy's were distinguished members of the Order of the Knights Templars
Their boastful motto was

Roi ne suis, ne prince aussi
Je suis le Sieur de Coucy

This may be freely translated

Neither princes nor Kings be we
We are the Lords of Coucy

(ii) On his marriage with Henry III's daughter, Alexander did homage for his English estates of Penrith and Tynedale. Henry demanded of him homage for Scotland also but the boy was instructed to reply that so important a question could not be discussed on such an occasion.

SHORT CHRONOLOGY AND SUMMARY OF EDWARD I's REIGN

1272	Edward I. proclaimed King while still abroad	1291	Acceptance by Scotch Barons of Edward's Overlordship
1275	First Statute of Westminster	1292	Edward selects John Balliol, who accepts Scotland as a fief of England.
1278	(a) Writs of Quo Warranto (b) Writs enforcing the taking up of knighthood.	1295	THE GREAT PARLIAMENT
1279	Statute of Mortmain.	1297	CONFIRMATIO CHARTARUM
1284	Statute of Wales settling the country	1298	William Wallace defeated at Falkirk.
1285	(a) Second Statute of Westminster (b) Statute of Winchester	1303	Wallace taken and executed
1290	(a) Expulsion of the Jews. (b) Statute of Quia Emptores	1306	(a) Bruce crowned at Scone (b) Edward invades Scotland
		1307	Edward I. dies at Burgh by Sands

IMPORTANT CONTEMPORARY EVENTS

1282	The Sicilian Vespers	1299	Pope Boniface VIII claims Scotland as a Papal Fief
1286	Alexander III of Scotland dies	1307	William Tell defies Austria
1294	First Alliance between Scotland and France against England	1309	Pope Clement V leaves Rome and goes to reside at Avignon in the south of France
1296	Scotland becomes a "forfeited fief"		

(i) "The Sicilian Vespers" is the name given to the massacre of the French by the Italian inhabitants of Sicily. The massacre began at Palermo, at "Vespers" (or Evening) and went on through the island.

(ii) Eight Popes lived at Avignon, under French influence, from 1309 to 1377. This forced absence from Rome is sometimes called "The Babylonish Captivity."

CHAPTER II.

EDWARD THE SECOND

(OF CARNARVON)

Born 1284 Succeeded (at the age of 23) in 1307 Died 1327.

Reigned 20 years

EDWARD of CARNARVON was the fourth son of Edward I. His three elder brothers died before their father. He married Isabel, the daughter of Philip IV. of France, who was said to be the most beautiful woman in Europe, and whom Gray, in his poem of "The Bard," calls the "she wolf of France." They had four children—two sons and two daughters. The eldest son became Edward III., the second, John of Eltham, Earl of Cornwall, and Joan, one of the daughters, married David II. of Scotland. Edward was put to death in Berkeley Castle, near Bristol, in 1327.

CONTEMPORARY SOVEREIGNS

SCOTLAND	ROBERT I.	FRANCE	PHILIP IV.	POPES	CLEMENT V.
			LOUIS X.		JOHN XXII.

1 Edward II. 1307-1327.—The story of this reign is a story of weakness, of guilt, of a great defeat, and of a foul and terrible murder. It falls easily into three periods. The first is the period of Edward's personal rule till the Battle of Bannockburn in 1314, and this period is marked by the fall of his greatest personal favourite, Gaveston. The second is the period of the rule of Earl Thomas of Lancaster, till his execution in 1322. The third is the period of ever weakening personal rule again, marked by the favouritism of the Despencers and the revolt of the Queen and her eldest son, and followed by the deposition of Edward himself. This reign thus includes two distinct revolts of the Barons against the Crown, and, at its close, the powers of Parliament were to a great extent increased. The Three Estates made a beginning of getting the control of the

taxes (that is, not only of *finding*, but of *spending* the money) into their own hands, they also attempted to regulate the choice of ministers, and they made a start, however feeble, in initiating legislation. Edward I, when dying, had charged his son, on pain of his curse, not to bury him, but to carry his bones in front of the army until Scotland was subdued, to push on the war with his utmost strength, and never to recall from banishment his old favourite, Piers de Gaveston. But Edward II, when his father was dead, did none of these three things. He sent his father's body to Westminster, gave up the war, returned to England, and recalled Gaveston. Scotland was left to the care of Aymer de Valence.

Edward of Carnarvon was in London when his father died at Burgh by Sands. He hastened north to Carlisle, and received the homage of the English, and of some of the Scottish, barons.

2 Piers de Gaveston — Peter or Piers de Gaveston, the son of a Gascon gentleman, had since his boyhood led Edward into wild, lawless, and dissolute courses, and now he came back to all his old influence, and into more than his old power. Gaveston, people said everywhere, was the real king, and Edward was the sham one. Gaveston went about openly wearing the crown jewels, at the coronation, he took precedence of all the nobles of the kingdom, bore the crown before the king and was more splendidly dressed than even the king himself, while Edward was so foolishly and madly fond of him, that he even gave up to Gaveston the presents which his own wife had made him. This Frenchman, who was an active and brilliant horseman and a splendid knight, unhorsed at a tournament the four great English Earls who were his bitterest enemies, and at Court he insulted the nobles and invented for them nicknames, which were so apt that people never forgot them. Thomas, Earl of Lancaster, was called the "old hog", the Earl of Pembroke, "Joseph the Jew", and the Earl of Warwick, "the black dog of the wood." Warwick vowed that he should one day feel the teeth of the black dog, and he kept his word. Upon the departure of Edward for France to marry Isabella, the daughter of Philip the Fair, Gaveston was created Earl of Cornwall and appointed Warden of the Realm. His influence over the king was so complete that it was ascribed to sorcery, and he went among the people by the ordinary nickname of "the witch's son."

(i) When Queen Isabella came to England, she found that her husband paid more attention to Gaveston than to herself. She was "kept wholly without money," and, writing to her father soon after her marriage, she declared herself "the most wretched of wives." Much later, writing to her brother, Charles I., she declared that she was "married to a grapple miser, and no better than a waiting woman, living on a pension from the Despensers."

(ii) The word *favourite* may have two meanings. It may mean (a) a person on whom the king lavishes gifts and honours, or (b) a person whose advice the king prefers to that of any other. In the case of Gaveston, both meanings were united, the queen detested him for the first reason, and the barons for the second.

(iii) The title of Earl of Cornwall had always been considered a royal title, and reserved for one of the royal family. The Duchy of Cornwall is still an appanage of the heir apparent to the throne.

3 The Lords Ordainers—The marriage took place at Boulogne, and on the 24th day of February 1308, Edward and his queen were crowned at Westminster. When they landed at Dover, they were met by the Regent (or Warden) and the barons, and these lords were not very well pleased when they saw the king, without noticing or speaking to any one else, rush into his favourite's arms, kiss him, and call him dear brother. Three days after the coronation, the barons met in secret council, and forwarded to the king a demand for the banishment of Gaveston. The settled purpose of Edward had always been to free himself from the yoke of the baronage, and to surround himself with ministers who should be wholly dependent on the will and pleasure of the Crown. This had become the custom in France, and this, too, was the substance of the advice given him by his father in his lifetime. On the other hand, the barons were determined to have their proper share in the government, and to establish for ever the principle which is the corner-stone of our constitution—no grant of money without redress of grievances or gift of new privileges. They succeeded so far as to have appointed in full Parliament a **Standing Committee** of twenty-one bishops, earls, and barons, to govern the realm for one year. These lords were called **Lords Ordainers**, and they drew up a list of **Articles of Reform** 1310.

(i) Dr Stubbbs points out that an entirely new question was asked of the king at the coronation of Edward I. It was this: "Will you consent to hold and keep the laws and righteous customs which the community of your realm shall have chosen?"

(ii) The most important ordinances of the Lords Ordainers were

1. The Charters to be observed.
2. No gifts to be made by the king without the consent of the Lords Ordainers.
3. The new taxes on wool, cloth, and wine to be abolished.
4. The king not to make war or leave the kingdom without the consent of Parliament.
5. Great Officers of State in England, Ireland, and Gascony, not to be appointed without the advice and consent of Parliament.
6. Gaveston to be banished for ever.
7. Parliaments to be held once, or—if necessary—twice a year.

(iii) Gaveston, during one of his banishments, was made Lord-Governor of Ireland, and, while there, he ruled well and justly.

4. **The End of Gaveston.**—The Lords also agreed that Gaveston should be banished. Gaveston went off to Flanders, but in another year he was back again by the king's side. The barons, with Thomas of Lancaster at their head, took up arms, summoned their followers, besieged Gaveston in Scarborough Castle, and forced him to surrender. The two Earls to whom he had surrendered swore by their honour as knights that his life should be safe, but they guarded him carelessly, and Warwick carried him off and in spite of his promises, his cries for mercy, and his tears of distress, "the black dog" beheaded him on Blacklow Hill near Warwick, on the 19th of June 1312.

(i) **Thomas of Lancaster** was not an ordinary baron. He was first cousin to the king and uncle to the queen. He was the son of Earl Edmund of Lancaster ("Edmund Crouchback," king of Sicily), the younger son of Henry III., and his step-sister had married Philip the Fair of France. He was the Earl of five large and rich counties.

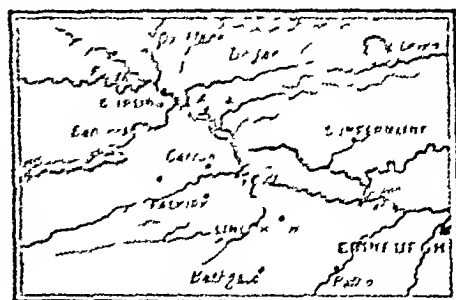
Crouchback is a corruption of *Crocodilus*—a man who wears a crocodile on his back, a Crocodile. In the same way *Crook Hill* has become *Crook Hill*. So the Crooked Friars (on Tower Hill, London) were the Friars who wore a crook on their backs.

(ii) When some of the barons wished to spare Gaveston, the crook arose. "We have got the wolf on the ears; if we let him go, we shall have to hunt him again!" His head was carried by a Black Friar to Edward.

5. **Scotland.**—The quarrels that filled the time and thoughts of Edward in England, proved to be the opportunity of Scotland. Bruce was everywhere successful, he took castle after castle, until the only strong place in English hands was the Castle of Strivelyn, or, as it is now called, *Stirling*. Its English governor, Philip de Morbray, had agreed to surrender it to Bruce if it were not relieved before the Feast of St. John the Baptist.¹ Edward had now to summon up his strength and to lose no time. To raise the

¹ The Feast of St. John is the 24th of June.

riche and to subdue Scotland once for all, he brought together a large army of 100,000 men, of whom there were 30,000 cavalry and 2000 mail-clad knights, marched due north, and met Bruce near Stirling, at a small brook called the Bannock. The night of the 24th of June was spent by the Scottish king in strengthening and improving his position. While the English army was feasting heavily and drinking deep the Scotch were thinking and planning and preparing the ground for the battle of next day. Bruce's right rested on the Bannock; in front of his centre was a large morass, and the ground on the left was specially prepared. It was seen that the English knights and heavy cavalry would attack on the left because of the firm ground, and hence Bruce's skilful arrangements for a warm reception of them. In the dead of night he had a large number of pits dug, about three feet deep; and in the bed of these pits were planted caltrops of iron. Over each hole a hurdle covered with turf was placed, which could bear the weight of a man but not of a horse, and thus the ground on the left was honeycombed everywhere with the fatal and treacherous traps. The main body of the Scotch spent the night in prayer and fasting.



(i) Edward's army was defeated and he was forced to flee. Edward's army was defeated and he was forced to flee.

Their ground of refusal was that a Parliament could not be called before the King could lawfully make war. This was afterwards recognised as a mistake.

College of St. Mary's, Glasgow, has a good collection of the old and new maps of the area. The old maps are particularly valuable as they show the old boundaries of the area.

(ii) The scene of the battle was the New Parish, which had been enclosed by Alexander III. The site of the battle was a wooded hill and deep ravine lying between the castle and the Panmure-Park. The hill, now called the Old Bannock Burn, which runs from the Well at Faskirk in a straight line across the Panmure, and past the Kirk of St. John in the Scottish rear, close to Stirling. The position was admirably chosen, so as to leave the English no room for attack as well as to prevent them bringing on a battle on the same day, but a small part of the English force. The nature of the ground, too, neutralised King Edward's superior cavalry at Bannockburn, and gave the advantage to the Scottish foot. Bruce's right rested on the rough ground of the stream, he was flanked by two morasses.

and the broken banks of the Bannock, while his left was secured by the impassable marsh lower down, now drained and known as the Carse of Stirling. Here Bruce, by Saturday the 22d, on which day the English broke camp at Falkirk, had drawn up his poorly armed peasants in three bands under his brother Edward on the right, Randolph Moray in the centre, and James, Earl Douglas, with the young Walter Steward, on the left. On Sunday, when the two armies were face to face, Clifford, with a picked band of knights, made a dash at Stirling, slipping unobserved between the Carse land on Bruce's left and a wooded ridge that cut him off from the view of the Scotch, but he was gallantly intercepted and completely defeated by Randolph Moray. As this episode was in progress Bruce was reviewing his centre mounted on a pony, when the well known incident of De Bohun's charge at the Scottish king occurred. —COLVILLE

6 The Battle of Bannockburn, 1314 —Next morning, Edward gave the signal to advance. With heavy regular tread the massive English line came on, glittering with shields and armour, and bristling with spear and battle-axe, and it seemed destined to surround and to crush the little Scottish army without an effort. But, broken by unequal and uncertain ground, and also by clumps of wood here and there, the line had to advance in seven distinct battalions, one behind the other, with Gloucester at the head of the foremost, and the fighting soon became a series of private combats and desperate duels by detached groups of men. Thousands in the English rear were crowded back, and could not get near enough to strike a blow all day. The power of the English cavalry had been rendered almost entirely useless by the pits on the left and the deep bed of the brook. The small body of Scottish cavalry, mounted on active and hardy ponies, were of wonderful use, for they fell upon the flank of the English archers, and chased them from the field.

7 The Defeat of the English —The English still held on, and fought with all their national doggedness and tenacity, until they saw what they believed to be another Scottish army pouring down upon their rear. This was a body of the servants, sutlers, and camp-followers, with a few soldiers among them to keep them steady, whom Bruce had posted upon the **Gillies¹ Hill**, to create this false belief. Down came the Gillies with pieces of tent-cloth at the end of poles, shouting and hurrahing, and then a panic seized the English, and the knights flung away their armour and their lances, and the pikemen their

Battle of
Bannock
burn
1314

¹ *Gilly* means servant and it was called *Gillies' Hill* from this event.

spears, and fled in dismay from the field. King Edward wished to stay and fight, but the Earl of Pembroke seized his horse and forced him to flee. He and his knights went off at a gallop, and they never drew rein till they reached Dunbar, a small town on the coast of Haddington. Here he got into a small boat that landed him at Bamborough Castle, on the coast of Northumberland. Half of the English army fell or were taken prisoners. An enormous wealth, both of stores and of money—there were said to be sixty miles of baggage-wagons—fell into the hands of Bruce, while hundreds of nobles and knights who were captured enriched the poorer country of Scotland with their heavy ransoms. On the one hand, it was the most thoroughgoing and terrible defeat ever sustained by an English army, and, on the other, it was a victory which secured the independence of Scotland from that time and for ever.

Scarcely a religious house in Scotland but showed for generations some spoils from the battle-field.'—COLVILLE.

(i) The great Earl of Gloucester, the king's first cousin, and one of his best friends, was killed in the battle.

(ii) The result of the Battle of Bannockburn was that Edward lost all control over the country. "Lancaster was practically supreme: he and his fellows, the survivors of the Ordainers, appointed and displaced ministers, put the king on an allowance, and removed his personal friends and attendants as they chose."—STUBBS.

The allowance on which the king was put was £10 a day. This would be equivalent to £100 at the present time.

(iii) A minute, yet surprisingly graphic account of the battle, as well as of the romantic career of the Scottish king, has been preserved in the closely contemporary poem, Barbour's 'Bruce'. Scott's 'Lord of the Isles' follows it closely. Barbour has left us one of the very best monuments of classical Lowland Scotch.

8 **The Rule of Lancaster**—After the battle of Bannockburn, Lancaster was the most powerful man in the kingdom. He was chosen official president of the Royal Council, he was commander-in-chief of the army, he was everything. "He now," says Dr Stubbs, "conducted himself as an irresponsible ruler. But he had not a capacity equal to his ambition, and his greed of power served to explain his real weakness. He acted as a clog upon all national action, he would not act with the king, for he hated him, he dared not act without him, lest his own failure should give his rivals the chance of overthrowing him."

9 **New Favourites**—Since the murder of Gaveston—for he was put to death without a proper trial—the hatred of the king for the

barons had grown daily in depth and in intensity. He had now found a new favourite, **Hugh le Despenser**, and upon him he heaped favours and presents, titles and estates. He also gave him his own cousin in marriage—a daughter of the late Earl of Gloucester. The barons again joined in opposition. They were led on this occasion by the Earl of Hereford, who had married the king's sister, the Earl of Lancaster, and by Roger Mortimer, Lord of Wigmore, a man who afterwards brought about the fall of Edward. These men called together their retainers and appealed to arms, but they were met by Edward at Boroughbridge, in Yorkshire, and totally defeated. Hereford fell in the battle, Lancaster was beheaded as a traitor, and Mortimer was condemned to imprisonment for life. Lancaster was dead, but the place of Lancaster as head of the opposition party was destined very soon to be filled by the queen herself.

(i) **Hugh le Despenser** was the grandson of the Justiciar of the baronial government in the time of Henry III. He was aided by his father, but "father and son were alike ambitious and greedy," and cared more for their own interests than for the king's.

The name is given variously as *Le Despenser*, *Despenser* and *Spencer*. The *Despenser* in a baronial household had charge of the *Spence* or *Buttery*. The office was similar to that of Steward.

(ii) The great Earl of Lancaster was led to execution on a barebacked and bridleless white horse in an old coat and old hat, while the mob pelted him with mud. He was ordered to kneel with his face to the north "towards his friends the Scots."

(iii) The people thought him a martyr, and miracles were wrought at his tomb. His name became a watchword of liberty—the influence which he had laboured to build up became a rival interest to that of the Crown. First, Edward II and the Despensers fell before it, then, in the person of Henry IV, the heir of Lancaster swept from the throne the heir of Edward's unhappy traditions.—STUBBS

10 New Quarrels—Disputes with reference to Gascony had arisen between Edward and the new French king, Charles IV, and, most unwisely, Isabella his wife, whose heart had never been true to her husband, was sent over to Paris to arrange for the settlement of them. While there, she sent for her son—afterwards Edward III—to come and do homage for Gascony to Charles IV. But, after this ceremony, the queen, who had finished the negotiations, refused to return until the Despensers were banished. In the meantime, Mortimer—who was a partner in the plot—escaped from prison, made his way to Paris, was warmly received by the queen, and appointed chief officer

of her household And thus Mortimer and Isabella formed an open league against their sovereign On the 24th of September 1326, they landed at Orwell, in Suffolk, with many banished Lancastrian nobles, at the head of an army of foreign mercenaries, and, so unpopular were the Despensers, father and son, that the queen was hailed by the people as a deliverer, and King Edward had to flee for his life He fled to the Welsh Marches, and tried to cross over to Lundy Isle, but contrary winds drove his ship back, and he and Despenser fell into the hands of the new Earl of Lancaster Despenser, crowned with nettles, was at once hanged on a gibbet fifty feet high, and the king was sent to Kenilworth Castle until his fate should be decided by a Parliament summoned for that purpose

The Queen
and Mortimer land in
Suffolk
1326

(i) The elder Despenser, though ninety three years of age, was also hanged

(ii) Edmund, Earl of Kent, the king's half brother, was also with the queen and Lancaster party

(iii) The chief charges against the king were (a) that he had followed evil counsellors, (b) that he had neglected the business of the State, (c) that he had lost Scotland, Gascony, and Ireland, (d) that he had slain and exiled good men

11. Edward deposed, January 13th, 1327—The peers met, asserted their constitutional right—a right which had always existed in pre-Norman England, for kings were then always elected—to depose an unworthy, quarrelsome, and incapable sovereign Not a single voice was raised on the side of Edward, and the young prince was proclaimed King by acclamation Sir William Trussel was sent to Kenilworth with a deputation from Parliament, to “make protestation in their name that they would no longer be in his fealty and allegiance, nor claim to hold anything of him as king, but would account him hereafter as a private person without any manner of royal dignity,” and Sir Francis Blount, steward of the household, solemnly broke his white wand of office—a ceremony only used at a king's death—and declared that all persons in the king's service were thus and thereby completely discharged from all duties towards him He was after this addressed as “Sir Edward of Carnarvon”

12 Edward murdered, September 21, 1327—Edward was placed in the keeping of Sir John de Maltravers, who, to conceal his place of abode, dragged him about from castle to castle, amidst open

disrespect, and even with the meanest and grossest indignities. One day fearful cries and agonising shrieks were heard in Berkeley Castle, and it was darkly whispered in the neighbourhood that the king had died in some terrible and mysterious manner. His murder was said to have been ordered by Isabella—"she-wolf of France"¹—and Mortimer. It was Isabella who "tore the bowels of her mangled mate," and caused the shores of Severn to "re-echo with affright the shrieks that rang through the roofs of Berkeley"—shrieks of a King of England in the agonies of torture and of death.

(i)

"The night

When Severn shall re-echo with affright

The sounds of death through Berkeley's roof that ring,

Shrieks of an agonising king

"At those cries many a countryman awoke, crossed himself, and prayed as for a soul departing in torment."

(ii) "So the son of the great King Edward perished, and with a sad omen the first crowned head went down before the offended nation, with a sad omen, for it was not done in calm and righteous judgment. The unfaithful wife, the undutiful son, the vindictive prelate, the cowardly minister, were unworthy instruments of a nation's justice. —STUBBS

13 Great Men—In the course of this feeble and distracted reign, we meet with no men who are properly entitled to the epithet *great*. But the most prominent characters are Piers de Gaveston, and—opposed to him both in policy and personal grounds—Thomas, Earl of Lancaster. Later on in the reign, there rise conspicuously before us the two Despensers, father and son, both of them great English barons, and—opposed to them—Roger Mortimer, Lord of Wigmore, and Adam de Orleton, bishop of Hereford.

(i) The grandfather, Hugh the Proud, of the young Despenser, had been created a baron in 1264, for his services against Simon de Montfort. He afterwards joined Montfort and became his Justiciar.

(ii) Adam de Orleton had been deprived by the king of his lands, which were given to Gaveston.

14 Social Facts—In the middle of this reign there had been great suffering from bad seasons, famine, the cattle plague, and the invasions of the Scots. Wheat rose to forty shillings a quarter—ten times its usual price, and Parliament in vain strove to arrest the

¹ Gray in his Ode of "The Bard."

famine by artificially fixing the price of articles of food. Corn was so scarce that an edict was issued that no grain should be malted or beer brewed, roots, horses, dogs, even carrion and loathsome animals were eaten, the old alms of meat and drink was withheld from the poor, and many barons were obliged to turn their retainers out of doors. These formed themselves into bands of hungry robbers who roamed about in quest of food.—The early part of this reign saw, in 1312, the suppression of the order of soldier-monks called the **Knights Templars**. The order was dissolved by a Bull of the Pope—first in France, and then in England. Their property was given over to the **Knights Hospitallers**, or **Knights of St John**, and their great house (now “Inns of Court”) became the residence, which it still is, of London lawyers.—**Bills of Exchange** were adopted in this reign, and the enlargement of credit thus produced gave new facilities for trade.

(i) By a decree of the king, the price of an ox was 16s, of a sheep, 3s 6d, of a foal, one penny, but indeed, none of these animals were brought to market at all.

(ii) The **Knights Templars** (called also “Poor of the Holy City” and “Poor soldiers of the Temple of Solomon”) were so called because they at first lived near the Temple at Jerusalem. Their original duties were to guard the roads to Jerusalem and to protect pilgrims. Easy accusations of evil life and of heresy were made against them but, in France at least, it was their wealth that excited hatred and envy. They possessed no fewer than 9000 manors in Europe.

SHORT CHRONOLOGY AND SUMMARY OF EDWARD II's REIGN

- | | |
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| <p>1307 (a) Edward II. becomes King
(b) Gaveston is recalled and made Earl of Cornwall.</p> <p>1308 Earl Thomas of Lancaster at the head of the barons demands the dismissal of Gaveston.</p> <p>1310 (a) Twenty-one Lords Ordainers (barons and bishops) appointed to rule the king's house hold
(b) Edward and Gaveston invade Scotland</p> <p>1312 (a) The Earl of Lancaster seizes Gaveston
(b) The Earl of Warwick puts him to death.</p> <p>1314. (a) Battle of Bannockburn
(b) The Earl of Lancaster the most powerful man in England</p> | <p>1315 Famine and high prices</p> <p>1318 (a) Robert Bruce invades Yorkshire
(b) Lancaster refuses to fight Scotland</p> <p>1320 The Despensers come into power</p> <p>1322. (a) Battle of Boroughbridge
(b) Execution of Lancaster
(c) Parliament at York, with the Commons taking, for the first time, a share in legislation (Hitherto, they had only voted supplies)</p> <p>1323 Thirteen years Truce with Scotland.</p> <p>1326 Revolt of the Queen and Prince of Wales</p> <p>1327 (a) Parliament at Westminster chooses the son instead of the father
(b) Deposition of Edward II</p> |
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CHAPTER III

EDWARD THE THIRD

(OF WINDSOR)

Born 1312 Succeeded (at the age of 15) in 1327 Died 1377
Reigned 50 years

EDWARD of WINDSOR, or Edward III, born at Windsor on November 13, 1312, was the eldest son of Edward II and Isabella of France. In 1328, before he was sixteen, he married Philippa of Hainault. He had six children—all sons. The most important of them were Edward the Black Prince, Lionel, Duke of Clarence, John of Gaunt, Duke of Lancaster and Edmund, Duke of York. Edward the Black Prince did not succeed to the throne, as he died in 1376—the year before his father.

CONTEMPORARY SOVEREIGNS

SCOTLAND	ROBERT I	FRANCE	PHILIP VI	SPAIN	PEDRO
	DAVID II		JOHN		HENRI II
	ROBERT II		CHARLES V		

1 Edward III's Reign—The reign of Edward III saw the beginning of the Hundred Years' War, heavy taxation in consequence, and an increase in the power of Parliament—more especially of the Commons, as the ultimate result. It saw also the diminution of the power of the Pope in England. The coming of the terrible plague called The Death or The Black Death brought about a fundamental change in the position of the serfs or villeins who tilled the soil, while it helped to break up the manorial system. In this reign, too, England lost for a time her old command of the sea, lost, moreover, all her possessions in France, with the insignificant exception of the three towns of Calais, Bordeaux, and Bayonne. This reign also saw the rise of the Lollards and other anti-clerical parties, and the growth, along with

the Universities, of a class of laymen who were sufficiently educated to take their share in the management of the affairs of the State. On the side of industry and commerce, England prospered greatly in this reign, for Edward encouraged both to the utmost of his power.

(i) The great scarcity of labour that was the result of the Black Death so enhanced its value that the working classes were enabled to improve their position to a very great extent.

(ii) "Edward III. was the father of English commerce, and, in his reign, commerce became, next to liberty, the leading object of Parliament."—HALLAM

2 Edward III, 1327-1377—Edward was only fourteen when he was called to reign over England, and a regency of nobles was formed, the head of which was Henry, Earl of Lancaster—the younger brother of Earl Thomas. But the real power remained in the hands of Queen Isabella and Mortimer, who did whatever they pleased. In 1328, peace was made with the Scotch at Northampton, and all claims of feudal superiority over them were given up for a sum of money, a marriage was contracted between David, the son of the Scotch king, and Joan of the Tower, the youngest daughter of Isabella, and last, and worst of all, the Earl of Kent, the brother of the late king, was seized and beheaded. Mortimer was growing every day more insolent and more unpopular, and even his own son was in the habit of calling him the "King of Folly." He and the queen divided between them the money obtained from the Scotch and from the forfeited estates of their opponents, and when he appeared in public, it was not as an ordinary but powerful noble,—it was with all the accompaniments of kingly state. He even treated the young Edward with haughtiness and cold disdain. At last, when the young king had reached the age of eighteen (and was the father of the Black Prince), he determined he would bear it no longer. Mortimer was staying at Nottingham Castle, and the governor, who was on the king's side, admitted by an underground passage a party of nobles with Edward at their head, who arrested the favourite and carried him off, in spite of the cries and entreaties of the Queen Isabella. A Parliament was summoned for consultation, and Mortimer was condemned to death by his peers, without being heard in his own defence, and was hanged at Tyburn on the 29th of November 1330. Isabella was made a State prisoner, and passed most of her life at Castle Rising in Norfolk.

Mortimer
arrested
1330

(i) The peace made at Northampton was called the "Shameful Peace," because all claims over Scotland were finally given up, and because these claims were sold to the Scotch for £20,000

(ii) Mortimer went about with a guard of 180 knights, and people spoke of him as a "May-day king." At a Parliament which met at Salisbury he was created Earl of March, and he and the Queen not only pocketed the money received from the Scotch, but held all the estates of the two Despensers, and the larger part of the Crown lands.

(iii) Tyburn (= the brook Ty) Elms, near the Marble Arch, Oxford Street, London, was the place of execution for malefactors for many centuries.

3 Halidon Hill, 1333—Edward Balliol (the son of King John Balliol) saw an opportunity, during the minority of David, of striking a blow for the crown of Scotland, and in this scheme he was to some extent successful. King Edward was drawn into the dispute, and he summoned his army and marched into Scotland to help

Battle of Halidon Hill 1333 He met the Scotch, led by the Regent Douglas, at Halidon Hill, near Berwick, and overthrew them with great slaughter. The result of the victory was to place Balliol

once more upon the throne, and, to repay the services of Edward, Balliol made a grant to him of all Scotland south of the Forth. Against such a degradation the whole Scottish nation rose as one man, and drove Balliol out of the country. At Berwick he was joined by Edward, and, for three years (from 1335 to 1337), they and their troops overrun the country and harried it with fire and sword. The French had assisted the Scotch with men and money, and thus, in addition to his standing claim upon the crown, determined Edward now to turn his arms against the stronger power.

(i) Halidon Hill was one of the great victories won by the English bowmen; they "made their arrows fly as thick as moles in the sunbeam."

(ii) The wary King David fled to France, and lived in "Sauey Castle" (Château Gaillard) in Normandy. When he returned two years after, Balliol did not venture to lift a finger against him.

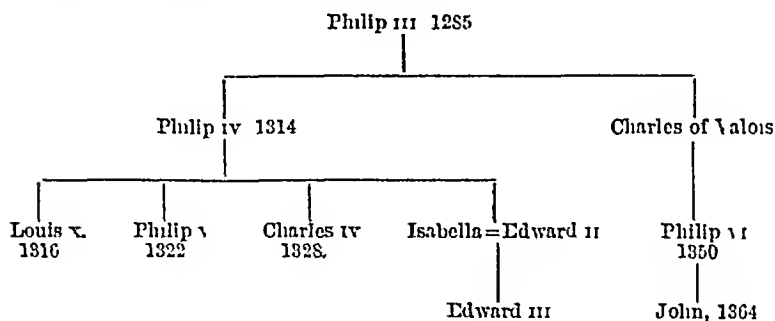
4. The Hundred Years' War—The male issue of the Capet dynasty in France had died out with Charles IV in 1328, and, as women were excluded from the throne by the Salic law, the crown devolved upon Philip of Valois, the grandson of Philip III. But a claim on the French crown was made for Edward, by right of his mother Isabella, the daughter of Philip IV. It was contended that, though a woman could not reign, the descendant of a woman, if in the direct line, was rightly and legally eligible to the throne,

and Edward was the grandson of Philip the Fourth. This dispute proved to be the beginning of a long war. The English Parliament took the side of their king, and voted large supplies, but they stipulated that, in the event of Edward's making good his claim, the two kingdoms should for ever remain distinct and separate. The Hundred Years' War is the name given to it by French writers, because, though there was not continuous fighting, there was no lasting or settled peace between the countries all that time. Edward now began to look about everywhere for allies. He made a league with Flanders, with the Empire of Germany, and with several of the poorer German princes, who were always ready for a little money and a little fighting.

The Hundred
Years War
begins
1337

(i) Queen Victoria was excluded from the succession to the crown of Hanover in 1837 by the operation of the Salic law. William IV was the last English King of Hanover, and we have thus been saved from many of the entanglements of Continental politics.

(ii) The following table shows the succession



(iii) "The male issue of such females were not excluded "

5 Edward in Flanders—Edward passed over to Flanders in 1338, with the queen and all his court. While residing there, two sons were born to him, and these princes took their names from the places of their birth—Lionel of Antwerp and John of Gaunt.¹ Edward's first great victory was in a sea-fight off Sluys, on the 24th of June 1340. The enemy's ships were so numerous that "their masts appeared to be like a great wood," but Edward, leading the van, went straight in among them, and the terrible hand-to-hand fight that followed lasted all through the

Naval
Victory at
Sluys
1340

¹ A form of *Ghent*. The modern Flemish form is *Gand*. Shakespeare in *Richard II*, makes the dying Gaunt pun upon his own name.

night, and ended in the defeat of the French with terrible slaughter. The French fleet was swept clean off the face of the French seas.

(i) So great was the slaughter and so complete the victory that no one dared to tell King Philip the news. At last the Court Jester was sent in. "Oh, the coward English, the coward English!" he cried, "they had not the courage to jump into the sea as our noble Frenchmen did."

(ii) Sluys is a small seaport near the mouth of the Scheldt in the country now called Belgium.

(iii) "In the cities of Flanders had arisen manufacturing populations which supplied the countries around with the products of the loom. To the Ghent and Bruges of the Middle Ages England stood in the same relation as that which the Austrian Colonies hold to the Leeds and Bradford of our own day. The sheep which grazed over the wide unenclosed pasture lands of our island formed a great part of the wealth of England, and that wealth depended entirely on the flourishing trade with the Flemish towns in which English wool was converted into cloth. —GARDINER

6 Troubles in England—While Edward was in Flanders, making ready for the invasion of France, he was terribly in need of money, and he conceived the idea that his own ministers were keeping back the funds they had collected and were intercepting the supplies that were so necessary to him. He suddenly set sail with a few friends and arrived in London in the dead of night on the 30th of November 1340. He at once dismissed his Chancellor, Robert of Stratford, Treasurer, and threw into prison several judges and officers of the Exchequer. He accused John of Stratford, Archbishop of Canterbury (whom he called "a mouse in his bag, a serpent in his lap, a fire in his bosom") of wasting his money, and ordered him to appear and plead before the Court of Exchequer. The Archbishop refused to appear, and demanded that he should be tried by his peers. The Barons supported him in this demand, and the king was obliged to yield. This crisis is remarkable for two things: first, the constitutional maxim that a peer can only be tried by his peers; second, the first appointment of a Layman as Chancellor of the Realm, instead of a Churchman—as had always been the case before. Edward also made other concessions, but when he had got his money, so weak was his feeling of honour that he revoked his promises and was not ashamed to avow that he "had wilfully dissembled as he ought." In spite of this, however, Parliament was and showed itself to be stronger than it had ever been before.

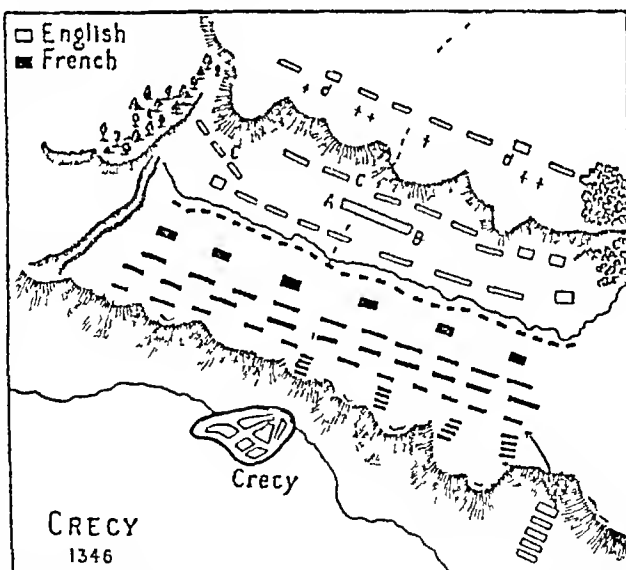
(i) The other concessions were (a) The accounts of the realm to be audited by Auditors appointed by Parliament, (b) Ministers to be appointed after consultation between the king and the barons (c) At the beginning of each Parliament, Ministers to resign their offices and be ready to answer complaints against them

(ii) The first of these concessions gave to Parliament the complete "power of the purse" The second and third established the constitutional maxim of the responsibility of Ministers to Parliament

(iii) This Parliament of 1340 granted the king Tonnage and Poundage—that is, 2s on every tun of wine imported, and 6d on each pound of merchandise—whether imported or exported.

7 Cressy, August 26, 1346—After six years more of alternate war and truce, the English once more met the French, but this time it was upon land Edward had left his queen, Philippa of Hainault, as Regent in England, and had landed at La Hogue, near Cherbourg, with an army of thirty thousand men He marched north and west to join the Flemings, and, on the way, he halted at the little village of Cressy,¹ near Abbeville, and resolved to take his stand there and to risk a battle His army consisted, in addition to the men-at-arms, of light-armed infantry from Ireland and Wales, and a powerful force of

English long-bowmen. The king ordered his knights and cavalry to dismount, and took up his position on the slope of a low hill with a ditch in front A windmill crowned the rising ground, and the king saw and directed the battle from the wooden



gallery of the mill. Between the companies of English bowmen

A, marks the Prince of Wales's troops in front, B, the Welsh and Irish, C, the troops of Northampton and Arundel, d, the reserves commanded by the king The --- on the stream are the Genoese bowmen

were small bombards,¹ "which with fire threw little iron balls to frighten the horses" The French attack began with the advance of fifteen thousand Genoese cross-bowmen, but a storm of rain had wetted their bowstrings, the sun was in their eyes, and their aim was bad The reply from the English archers, who had kept their bows covered during the rain, was direct and terrible "it seemed as if it snowed"—On the right the Prince of Wales was hard pressed by the Count of Alençon at the head of the French knights A messenger galloped up to the windmill with a request for help from Edward, "The boy is in a hard passage of arms," but Edward refused. "Is he dead, or unhorsed, or wounded?" said the king "No? Then let the boy win his spurs for I wish, if God so order it, that the day may be his"—The blind king of Bohemia was led into the battle with his horse tied to the horses of two brave knights, his vassals "I pray you," he cried, "to lead me so far into the fight that I may strike one good blow with this old sword of mine" And with eager shouts they plunged together into the thick of the fight, and fell among the heap of wounded and dying and dead—At last the French, beaten at every point, turned and fled from the field in complete disorder, and Philip, their king, fled with them

Cressy
1346

—The fact most worthy of note in this battle is, that the foot soldiers proved themselves more than a match for the heavily-armoured knights, and this fact marks the beginning of the end—was the first sign of the decay of feudalism The feudal state rested upon war, and upon war as made by a few elaborately-armed knights and nobles, mounted on high and strong war-steeds, and cased in "complete steel" from head to foot But now, in this battle, it was seen that the foot soldiers were superior to the horse, that the churl could beat the noble, and that the bondsman was, in battle, the equal of the knight

(i) Cressy was "the first of that great series of battles, in which the small armies of the English showed themselves superior to overwhelming numbers of the French

(ii) The French army was very unfortunate in its march An eclipse of the sun which darkened the sky, a terrible thunderstorm, rain in torrents which drenched the men and slackened the bowstrings of the archers, clouds of ravens and other birds flying above their heads before the storm—it was under these circumstances that the French came up to the English forces Then, when the sun came out, it shone full in the faces of the French army

¹ This is the first instance of fire artillery in field warfare it had been before used in sieges.

(iii) "Cressy proved that English villeins—common men bending their long bows—and Welsh and Irish serfs, armed with knives and spears—were more than a match for the proud nobles of France, mounted on war horses and clothed in gorgeous armour "

'When they drew near the Genoese bowmen made a great leap and cry to abash the English, but they stood still and stirred not for all that. And a second time they made another leap and a fell cry and stepped forward a little and the Englishmen removed not one foot. Again they leapt and cried, and went forward till they came within shot then they shot fiercely with their cross-bows. Then stepped forth the English archers one pace, and their arrows flew so wholly and so thick that it seemed snow. When the Genoese felt the arrows piercing through heads and arms and breasts many of them cast down their cross-bows and ran back. When the French king saw them flying, he said 'Slay me those runaway rascals for they block our path! Then the men-at-arms dashed in among them and killed a great number thereof and still the English bowmen kept shooting wherever they saw the til kett press'—PROLOGUE

8 Calais, Aug 31, 1346—Aug 4, 1347.—Edward could not follow up his victory, his forces were too small. He rested on the ground, and then turned aside to besiege Calais. There were many reasons why he should wish Calais to be in his possession. It was just opposite Dover, it was a great haven of pirates, who made all trade in the Channel insecure,—twenty-two privateers had sailed from its port in one year, it commanded Flanders and France,—it was indeed the "key of France," was "an open doorway into France," just as Dover was the "lock and key of England," and just as Gibraltar is to this day the "key of the Mediterranean." He therefore proceeded to blockade Calais by sea and land until it was reduced by starvation. There is a beautiful old story,—but unfortunately with little historical foundation,—that Edward offered to grant mercy to the garrison only on condition that six of the principal burgesses, bareheaded, barefooted, and with halters on their necks, should give themselves up to him to be dealt with as he should please. "On them," said Edward, "will I work my will." Master Eustache de St Pierre was the first to volunteer, and the others were soon found. Then the queen, moved with deep pity, flung herself at the knees of the king, and earnestly implored mercy for them. "Lady," he said, "I would you had been elsewhere, I dare not refuse you, I do it against my will, yet—take them, I give them to you"—Calais surrendered, English colonists were placed in possession, and it remained English territory for more than two hundred years.

Taking of
Calais
1347

Calais flourished under English rule

(i) The possession of Calais brought with it the following advantages (a) It was in the immediate neighbourhood of the King's Flemish allies, (b) it was an excellent

port for English wool—which was then our chief export, (c) it was one of the “gates of the Channel.”

(ii) The inhabitants had their choice given to be French or English. Those who declined to swear fealty to Edward were expelled, and their places filled with Englishmen. The city received large privileges as a market-town, and grew and prospered under English rule. It was enacted that all wool intended for the Continent should pass through Calais. In the time of Henry VIII it sent members to the English Parliament.

(iii) A great naval victory fell to Edward in 1350. A Spanish fleet of forty large vessels had entered the Straits of Dover. The king met them off Winchelsea, attacked them, took twenty-four ships, sunk several others,—and, from this great success, took the title of “King of the Sea.”

9 Neville's Cross, 1346—The year before this the queen had rendered signal service to the king and his kingdom. For, two months after the battle of Cressy, a Scotch army, taking advantage of the king's absence, had marched into England, when the queen, without hesitation, raised an army as quickly as she could, met them at Neville's Cross, near Durham, on the 12th of October 1346, and utterly routed them. David II, king of the Scots, and Edward's own brother-in-law, was taken prisoner, and long kept in captivity in England. David afterwards tried to secure the Scottish crown for his nephew, Lionel of Antwerp, but the Scottish nation would not hear of it.

10 The Black Death—In 1348 and 1349 a terrible plague visited England. It came from Asia, and, after devastating Europe, appeared in England at the close of 1348. The population of England was then not quite four millions—much less than that of London alone to-day, and it swept away more than one-half of the people. The great towns fared worst, for infection spread there more quickly, and the streets were narrow, filthy, and undrained. In Bristol, the living were hardly able to bury the dead, in Yorkshire, more than one-half of the priests perished, “the sheep and cattle strayed through the corn, and there were none to drive them,” and the cattle rotted and poisoned the air in the fields. For generations after, it was talked of solemnly as “The Death.”¹ Most of the labourers were dead, and the few that remained now demanded higher wages. This gave rise to

First appear-
ance of the
Black Death
1349

¹ Chaucer in his Prologue describes the fear in which his servants stood of the Reeve
‘ They were afraid of him as of the death ’

the famous Statute of Labourers, in which the price of labour was fixed, the peasant was once more bound to the soil, and runaways were ordered to be branded with a hot iron upon the forehead. Famine, moreover, threatened the country the land could not be tilled, and harvests could not be gathered for want of hands. In this state of things, England had no heart to go on with the French war.

(i) The Black Death also visited England in the years 1361, 1369 and 1407. Two thirds of the clergy in Norfolk died, in Norwich alone, 60,000 persons. The population of London, after the plague had ceased, was returned at only 25,000.

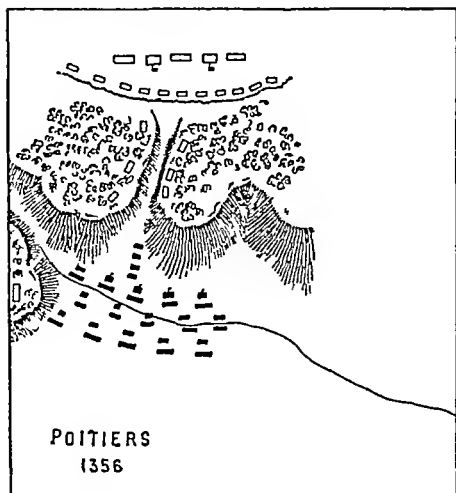
(ii) The death of one half of the population had two distinct effects. (a) it enormously increased the price of labour, (b) it enormously decreased the value of land. The landowners tried to enact laws that would make things as they had been before, but the task was impossible. Where there was hay to be made, or a crop of corn to reap, the labourers could practically exact their own prices, and no Acts of Parliament could compel them in all parts of the country.

(iii) Another effect of the Black Death was that many landowners gave up letting farms for corn, etc., and laid down their lands in permanent pasture, for the purpose of growing wool. It was easier to pay one shepherd than fifty labourers. England was at this time, and for long after, the great producer of wool for the Flemish looms.

11 Portiers, Sept 19, 1356 — But the war with France was renewed in 1355, though the leader now was that younger Edward who had so brilliantly distinguished himself at Cressy. He is known to history as the Black Prince,¹ from the colour of the armour he wore in that battle. This prince led a Seven Weeks' Raid into the south of France, met with no opposition, and returned to his city of Bordeaux laden with the spoil of five hundred plundered cities, towns, and villages. The year after, he made another expedition to the north-east, when, on the 19th of September 1356, he found himself at Portiers, without provisions, and hemmed in by an army five times as large as his own. In these fearful circumstances, he offered to the French to give up all his booty, to dismiss the larger part of his army, and to bind himself not to fight against them for seven years. But they refused the offer, they demanded the prince himself and one hundred of his knights as prisoners, with the purpose of exchanging them afterwards for the town of Calais. The prince declined the French terms, and, seeing there was nothing else for it, made up his mind to fight. He took up a strong position on three low hills,

¹ Prince Frederick Charles of Germany who played so important a part in the Franco-German war of 1870-71 was known as the "Red Prince."

his front covered with thick hedges, and the enemy could get at him



only by coming up a long narrow lane between two of these hills, which were covered with vineyards. The English bowmen lined the hedges and vineyards, and the end of the lane was strongly held by a small but determined body of men-at-arms, while another body was in ambush, to fall on the French flank. The French were sure of victory, and eager for the fight, and,

numbering from 60,000 to 80,000 they thought they had the English entirely at their mercy. Three hundred French knights began the battle, and charged up the narrow lane, the rest followed, and the bowmen from behind the hedges had them right under the points of their arrows and slaughtered them at their ease. The main body of the French army were unable to get near the English, for the block of the dead bodies of their own men. The French king, John the Good, was taken prisoner, in spite of a desperate resistance, and by noon 11,000 of the French had fallen, 2000 were prisoners, and the rest had taken to flight. King John was brought captive to London, and a ransom so large—three million gold crowns—was demanded for him, that France,¹ though then extremely rich, was unable to pay it. John had to remain in England, and he died in London, at the Savoy Palace, beside Temple Bar.

(i) The long lane or cleft between the hills was called by the French *Maupertuis* ("Ill Gap" or "Evil Chance"). No position could be better.

(ii) Many of the Black Prince's army had not tasted food for three days and they fought with the courage of despair.

(iii) "Crecy and Poitiers demonstrated to the world that a people with united ranks, in which the nobility and gentry regarded the townsmen and the yeomen as their fellow citizens, was stronger than a people in which distinction of rank was

¹ It is now the richest country on the continent of Europe. In 1871 it paid to Germany £200 000 000 without great difficulty.

everything, and in which the business of defence was intrusted to the more showy part instead of being a burden upon the whole —GARDINER.

(iv) During the captivity of King John in England, the misery of France was so great that the peasantry rose against the nobles, and put a large number of them to death. This was called *La Jacquerie* or the Rising of Jacques, from Jacques Bonhomme (=James Goodfellow) the nickname for a French peasant.

12 The Great Peace—Four years after the battle of Poitiers, in 1360, the Great Peace, or Peace of Bretigny, was made, by which Edward's duchy of Aquitaine was secured to him, not as a fief of France, but in absolute sovereignty, and Calais was also left in the hands of England. In this peace, the great English poet Chaucer, who had been fighting in France and had been taken prisoner, was exchanged and set free.

The Great
Peace
1360

(i) By the Great Peace of Bretigny, Edward gave up his claim to the French crown, and to Normandy, Maine, and Anjou. On the other hand, besides the complete sovereignty of Aquitaine (including Gascony, Guienne, Poitou, &c.), he received also that of Ponthieu and Calais, freed from all feudal claims on the part of the French kings. The English possessions between the Loire and the Pyrenees were erected into a principality, and the Black Prince was made Captain General.

(ii) In the same treaty, King John was to be liberated on payment of 3,000,000 pieces of gold. He himself was allowed to return to France on parole to collect it, but he did not succeed.

13 Renewal of the War, 1369—The Black Prince had undertaken an expedition into Spain to help Pedro the Cruel against his subjects, and the only result was broken health and ruined finances. To raise money, the Black Prince imposed heavy taxes on his French subjects; and this harshness moved his Gascon subjects to appeal in 1369 to Charles v, who was now king of France. This appeal was made in spite of the fact that, by the Peace of Bretigny, the kings of France had given up all claims over Gascony and the neighbouring provinces. But the men of Aquitaine, who used to pride themselves on their independence of the French kings who ruled at Paris, now began to feel that they were really under the yoke of the foreigner. Charles v had recourse to two devices. In the first place, he gave up fighting with heavily-armed knights, and trusted more to carefully drilled hired soldiers, who were mostly footmen. In the second place, he sedulously avoided pitched battles, and tried to weary out the English by retreats, by minor skirmishes, by cutting off supplies. Meanwhile, the Spaniards had joined the French at sea, and in 1372

their united ships met the fleet of the Earl of Pembroke off Rochelle. The English fleet was utterly defeated, the Earl of Pembroke was taken prisoner, and his treasure-vessel sunk to the bottom of the sea. John of Gaunt, Duke of Lancaster, invaded France in 1373, but this invasion was a miserable and disastrous failure. By the end of the year 1374, of all the vast English possessions in France, there remained in English hands only Calais, Bordeaux, and Bayonne.

(i) One of the reasons for the Spaniards joining the French was that John of Gaunt assumed the title of King of Castile.

(ii) "It was indeed a day of triumph for the Spaniards, for the English had suffered no such defeat during the whole reign of Edward III."—LONGMAN

14 The Good Parliament—The Black Prince had ruined his health in his expedition into Spain, and was slowly dying, the king was old and feeble, and the ruling power fell into the hands of John of Gaunt. Queen Philippa was dead, and a favourite of the old king, Alice Perrers, a woman of ability and wit, but of low character, had made herself all-powerful in the court, and interfered with the administration of affairs, and even with the course of justice. Misrule of all kinds reigned, until the "Good Parliament" of 1376 set itself earnestly to the work of reform. It met with opposition from John of Gaunt, but it had the hearty support of the Black Prince. It compelled Alice Perrers to swear that she would never again enter the king's presence, it impeached two of the ministers of John of Gaunt, and it solemnly presented to the king one hundred and sixty petitions setting forth the grievances of the realm—Before the time of Edward I, the clergy, the barons, the knights, and the burgesses had always met in the same room, though they voted grants independently of each other. From his time the knights and burgesses formed a separate house, called the House of Commons.

The Good Parliament 1376 And this "Good Parliament" is very noteworthy as the first in which the Commons felt themselves so strong as to dare to impeach the ministers of the Crown. This marks the new strength of the middle, moneyed, and industrious class, as distinct from the powerful landed baronage.

15 Scotland to 1329—After the death of her grandfather in 1286, Margaret, the Maid of Norway, succeeded to the throne, under a Council of Regency. This Council consisted of six men—three

to manage the affairs of the old kingdom of Scotland north of the river Forth, and three to govern the Lothians and Galloway. The Estates of Scotland made a very important treaty with Edward I in 1290, which was called the **Treaty of Brigham**, from the village near Berwick, where it was signed. Edward also intended to marry the young Scottish princess to his eldest son, Edward II, but her death at Orkney, on her way to Scotland, in the autumn of 1290, put an end to these hopes. There were ten competitors for the crown of Scotland, all of whom acknowledged, at Norham Castle, Edward I's claim to be Overlord or Lord Superior of Scotland. These ten were cut down to two—John Balliol and Robert Bruce of Annandale, the grandfather of the Robert Bruce who became king of Scotland in 1306. John Balliol, as the grandson of Margaret, the *eldest* daughter of David, Earl of Huntingdon, was appointed by Edward to be king of Scotland—Balliol reigned for only four years, from 1292 to 1296, and in the course of this short reign he had to suffer, at the hands of English lawyers, various insults and degrading proofs of his vassalage to the English king. Finally, Balliol was deposed by Edward—he was sent to the Tower of London, but was afterwards permitted to reside upon his estate of Bailleul in France, from which he had also his name. The struggle of William Wallace followed, then came the rise of Robert Bruce and the terrible defeat of Bannockburn in 1314. Before Bruce died (1329), the complete independence of Scotland was acknowledged by the English Parliament, and the **Treaty of Northampton** brought peace to both countries.

(i) The river Forth was at one time called the "Scots Water."

(ii) The **Treaty of Brigham** provided (a) that the laws and liberties of Scotland should be inviolate, (b) that the kingdom of Scotland was to be separate from England, and marked off by distinct marches, (c) that no native of Scotland could be obliged to go to England to answer either in a civil or in a criminal case, and that (d) there should be a national Great Seal, and that Seal should be always in the keeping of a native of Scotland.

(iii) "Norham Castle was then freshly built, and endowed with those new elements of resistance and destruction introduced by the Norman kings, which were the wonder and terror of the day. Nothing of the kind existed within Scotland, but there it stood close to the edge of the Tweed—so close that a stone might have been pitched from England into Scotland by a catapult on the battlement"—BURTON.

(iv) "This king of Scotland was obliged to stand at the bar like a private person, and answer to an accusation brought against him for denying justice"—PARLIAMENTARY HISTORY OF ENGLAND.

(v) The most terrible act of Edward I against Scotland was the assault on Berwick, in 1296, and the slaughter of its citizens. There was an end of the great city of merchant-princes, and Berwick was henceforth to hold the rank of a common market-town.

(vi) One of the articles in the Treaty of Northampton provided that the son of Robert the Bruce should marry Joanna, daughter of Edward II. This son succeeded Robert with the title of David II.

16 Death of the Black Prince—On the 8th of June 1376, the Black Prince died. He had been the darling of the nation, he had won for them great glory in war, and he had done what he could for the prosperity of England in time of peace. He was buried in Canterbury Cathedral, where his tomb, with his coat of mail, his helmet, and shield above it, may still be seen. His great victories and laborious efforts in France had dwindled, before his death, into very little, and of all her vast French territories, England in the end of the year 1374, held nothing but three towns.

“Chivalry was to the mediæval warrior very much what monasticism was to the mediæval churchman. It placed before him his own mode of life in the best and highest light of which it was capable. The rough and often brutal warrior learned that self-restraint and respect for others were higher than prowess in the field. The Black Prince showed himself nobler in humbly waiting on a captive king than when he won his spurs by his charge at Crecy. —GARDINER.

17 The Work of Edward's Parliaments—The more deeply Edward was engaged in war, the more money he was obliged to find. And the more money he was obliged to find, the oftener he had to apply to his Parliaments, and the stronger these Parliaments grew. Hence there was, during the reign of Edward III, very considerable parliamentary activity. The chief statutes passed were the Statute of Provisors, the Statute of Praemunire, and the Statute of Treasons. When the king sent an address to Parliament, he took care to mention the Commons along with the Great Men (Les Graunts) or Barons, as he expected pecuniary assistance from them also. Like his predecessors, Edward was in the habit, when he could, of levying taxes without the consent of Parliament—especially upon wool, and of obtaining large grants from wealthy merchants. The tendency of this practice was to make the king independent of Parliament, and this was forbidden by statute in the year 1362—“No imposition, tollage, nor charge whatsoever to be laid by the Privy Council without

the grant and consent of the Commons in Parliament" Thus Parliament "asserted the important principle of self-taxation"

(i) The Statute of Provisors was passed in 1351, to prevent the Pope presenting Italians ("aliens which did never dwell in England") to livings in the English Church. He also confiscated to himself the first year's income of these livings, and appointed certain persons called "Provisors" to collect the money. Moreover, when a dispute arose, the Provisors carried the matter into the Papal Court, and those who resisted had to defend themselves in the Court of Rome.

(ii) The Statute of *Præmunire* (a corruption of the phrase *Præmoneri facias*—"Let it be told beforehand to, etc") was passed to forbid persons prosecuting a suit in the Pope's or in any other foreign courts without the permission of the king. Offenders against this statute were outlawed.

(iii) The year 1343 is remarkable as the first year in which the Lords met separately from the Commons. The Bishops, Prelates, and Barons sat in the "White Chamber" of the Palace of Westminster; the Knights of the Shires and the Commons (or representatives of Cities and Boroughs) in the "Painted Chamber." Thus the Knights of the Shire sat in a different room from the "Great Men." Four shillings a day was allowed to a Knight of the Shire, and two shillings to a citizen or burgess—paid by the places they represented.

(iv) "The new born vigour and influence of the nation's representatives sprang, as has always been the case under similar circumstances, from the necessities of the king. His foreign wars demanded almost unlimited supplies of money. The king found by experience that he could not raise supplies without consent of Parliament. To obtain these he was forced to listen and yield to its demands, and thus, unwillingly, to increase its power."—LONGMAN. "No such impetus was given to the growth of Parliamentary power till there arose the similar necessities of William III. in his protracted struggle with Louis XIV."—COLVILLE.

(v) Of the Three Estates, the Commons grew most, and most rapidly, in power. At the beginning of the Hundred Years War, the Commons was the weakest of the three, at the end of the war, it was the strongest.

18 Death of Edward, June 21, 1377—Edward was lying sick to death at Sheen, a village near London, now called Richmond. His servants forsook him shortly before he died, and his favourite, Alice Perrers, made her reappearance only to strip the rings from his cold fingers and to desert him on his deathbed. Only one priest was with him when he died. His dear son, the Black Prince, had passed away a year before him.

"Mighty victor, mighty lord—
Low on his funeral couch he lies !
No pitying heart, no eye afford
A tear to grace his obseques
Is the sable warrior fled ?
Thy son is gone He rests among the dead.' ¹

¹ Gray's Ode The Bard."

Edward III was one of the greatest kings that ever sat upon the throne of England. He was, indeed, greater as a soldier than as a ruler, but he did much for the rising prosperity of the English people. One great boon he bestowed upon them from the date of 1362 it was enacted that all pleas in the courts "shall be pleaded, shewed, defended, answered, debated, and judged in the English tongue." Before that date pleadings had been carried on in French. This was indeed the greatest benefit that could be bestowed upon the nation, as it made justice surer and more speedy. Edward was remarkable for his skill in all chivalric and knightly exercises, he delighted in tournaments, and usually took part in them disguised—so that no one should spare him. He made the power of England more feared and respected on the Continent than it had ever been before, and his great victories elevated the position of the English peasant, for at Cressy and Poitiers it was proved that "bow and bill were more than a match for lance and shield."

19 Great Men—This reign was fruitful in great and distinguished men. The **Black Prince** the eldest son of Edward, commonly called Prince of Aquitaine and Wales, distinguished himself in the field, and later, in the parliamentary struggles with his brother John of Gaunt, the fourth son of Edward. Archbishop John Stratford stood up manfully against the king himself, and obliged him to give a practical acknowledgment of the clause in Magna Charta, which declares that a man must be tried and judged by his peers. William of Wykeham, the great Bishop of Winchester, an able Lord High Chancellor of England, and one of the greatest architects that England ever produced, is noteworthy, in the later part of this reign, as the steadfast and powerful opponent of the policy of John of Gaunt. John Wycliffe, "the first English Reformer, the Father of English Prose," stands out with great prominence at the end of the reign, as an opponent of the orders of Begging Friars, and a supporter of the great Duke of Lancaster. The Duke himself, better known as John of Gaunt, by his violent opposition to the influence of the Commons, marks with sufficient emphasis the fact of the growing power of the English Parliament. More enduring in fame than any of them, is Geoffrey Chaucer, the "Father of English Poetry," who in this and the following reign wrote poems and tales, which describe in the most vivid colours and musical language the everyday life of Mediæval England.

20 Social Facts—The greatest social catastrophe in the fourteenth century—and perhaps the greatest that ever happened in England—was the result of the plague called the Black Death. Labour became so scarce, so dear, and so difficult to procure, that the serf became practically a free workman, and the Black Death proved to be the Emancipator of Labour. The tenure of land was altered also. Tenant-farmers paying a money-rent for their land took the place of the “customary tenants,” who were bound to labour for their lord, and who held their stock as well as their farm from him. The manorial system began to be broken up—The clergy, on their side, had become unpopular. They had become very rich, they monopolised most of the offices of state, and many of them neglected their duties in the country to go to London to find a “fat chauntry,” or a lucrative post under Government. A strong party, headed by John of Gaunt, advocated the expulsion of the clergy from all secular offices (and there were now many laymen educated at the Universities, who could do this kind of work), another party, at the head of which was John Wycliffe, strove to bring back the purity and simplicity of the ancient times. Architecture of all kinds prospered greatly in this reign, and at the head of this art stood William of Wykeham, the founder of Winchester School, who rebuilt Windsor Castle for Edward III. The rise of the power of Parliament seems to be synchronous with the growth of the power of the English language. Up to this point, Kings, Barons, Prelates, and the “Great Men” generally, seem to have spoken French, and to have sometimes prided themselves on their ignorance of English. The year 1362 marks a great change in this respect, for from this time English, and not French, was ordered to be used in Courts of Law. The appointment of a Speaker by the Commons to represent them marks also a new departure, and we can see that new powers were stirring, new circumstances arising, and new aims held up for the attainment of political parties, in the course of this long reign.

English in
Courts of
Law
1362

(i) The Manorial System, or the division of the land into Manors, still existed in England at this time. “The manor was the unit of tenure under the feudal system.” The “Lord of the Manor” kept about half the soil in his own hands, a part was held by *Franklins* or *Freeholders*, and a part by *Villeins* or *Feudal Serfs*. The *Villeins* were bound to give so many days service, and to pay certain small dues—generally in kind. When the lord wished for ready money to go on a crusade, or to pay aids or reliefs,

he would exchange the services due for ready money, and this bargain was duly entered in the rent roll of the manor, and a copy of the agreement given to the villain, who was hence called a copyholder

Serfs tied to the soil bought and sold with the land were called *villeins regardant* those that were personal slaves and might be sold at the will of their master were *villeins en gros*

(ii) A chauntry was often a brotherhood or college founded by some wealthy person to have so many masses sung or *chantered* for his soul.

(iii) In 1332 Members of Parliament were forbidden to enter the City of London or its suburbs armed with swords, long knives, etc. On the other hand, little boys were forbidden to amuse themselves by knocking off the hats of passers by in the neighbourhood of the Palace of Westminster

(iv) The first Speaker of the Commons was Sir Thomas Hungerford, the second was Sir Peter de la Mare

21 Scotland to 1371—In the year 1329, David Bruce succeeded his father, Robert Bruce, under the title of David II. He was only eight years old. Edward Balliol, the son of the deposed John Balliol, invaded Scotland along with a number of English Barons, who had been deprived of their Scotch estates, and defeated the Scottish Regent Mar at Duplin, in Perthshire. Edward was crowned at Seone, and the young King David fled to Paris.—In 1333, an English army was moved forward once more to attack Berwick, and the Scottish forces met it at Halidon Hill—a little to the west of the town. The Scottish army had to struggle slowly through the marsh behind which the English were posted, and were all this time exposed to the deadly skill of the English bowmen, and those who did not fall under the cloth-yard shaft were cut to pieces by the long swords of the men-at-arms. It was a butchery rather than a battle. In 1339 Edward III invaded France, Edward Balliol returned to England, and, in 1341, David II was free to re-appear in Scotland. He came back with his queen Johanna of England, daughter of Edward II, and sister of Edward III.—In the year 1346, when Edward was busy with the siege of Calais, the Scots began that policy which lasted several hundred years, of invading and harrying England while the English army was engaged in France. The two armies met at Neville's Cross, near Durham, the Scotch were once more defeated by the English bowmen, and David himself was taken prisoner. He was sent to London, and was only released in 1357, with a ransom of 100,000 marks, the payment of which was spread over twenty-five years. David II died in the year 1371. He reigned forty-two years, though he was only forty-seven when he died.

(i) The king was anointed by the Bishop of St. Andrews, under the sanction of a special Bull from the Court of Rome "It was the first instance in Scotland of anointing"

(ii) "The warlike renown of England almost recovered at Halidon Hill what it had lost at Bannockburn —BURTON

(iii) Shakespeare ("Henry V" i 2) makes King Henry say
 For you shall read that my great grandfather
 Never went with his forces into France,
 But that the Scot on his unfurnish'd kingdom
 Came pouring like a tide into a breach

(iv) In 1356, after the battle of Poitiers, John II of France joined King David as prisoner in London

(v) Throughout the correspondence with the Scotch Estates for the ransom of King David, he is always called in the English documents merely David de Bruce, while Edward Balliol is mentioned as King of Scots

SHORT CHRONOLOGY AND SUMMARY OF EDWARD III'S REIGN

1227	Edward III. proclaimed King	1347	Calais surrenders
(a)	Queen Isabella and Roger Mortimer the real rulers of England.	1349	The Black Death
(b)	Edward II murdered.		The First Statute of Labourers
1328	Independence of Scotland acknowledged	1356	Victory of Poitiers
	Edward III. marries Philippa of Hainault.		John the Good King of France is taken
1330	Edward arrests Mortimer	1360	The Great Peace
1332	Knights of the Shire deliberate apart from the barons	1362	The English Language to be used in our Courts of Law
1333	Knights of the Shire sit apart with the representatives of cities and towns	1364	The French king dies at the Savoy Palace
	Battle of HALIDON HILL.	1372	Capture of Earl of Pembroke by the Spaniards
1337	Edward takes the title of King of France	1373	Tonnage and Poundage granted by Parliament for two years
1338	Beginning of the Hundred Years War	1374	Loss of all English dominions in France, except Calais, Bordeaux, and Bayonne
1340	(a) Battle of Sluys	1376	John of Gaunt at the head of affairs.
	(b) Robert Bouchier is the first lay Chancellor	1376	The Good Parliament
1341	The Archbishop of Canterbury claims that a Peer must be tried by his Peers		(a) Death of the Black Prince
			(b) John of Gaunt comes back to power
1346	Victory of Cressy	1377	Edward III. dies.
	Battle of NEVILLE'S CROSS in which the Scots are defeated.		Wycliffe summoned to appear at St Pauls on a charge of heresy

CHAPTER IV

RICHARD THE SECOND

(OF BORDEAUX)

Born 1366 Succeeded (at the age of 11) in 1377 Died 1399
 Reigned 22 years

RICHARD OF BORDEAUX was the eldest son of Edward the Black Prince, who was himself the eldest son of Edward III. He was born at Bordeaux April 13, 1366. He married in 1381, before he was sixteen years of age, Anne of Bohemia, and again, in 1395, Isabella of France. There were no children by either marriage. Richard was put to death in 1399.

CONTEMPORARY SOVEREIGNS

SCOTLAND ROBERT II 1371
 ROBERT III 1390

FRANCE CHARLES V 1364
 CHARLES VI 1380

1 Richard II 1377-1399 —Richard II was only eleven years of age when he began to reign. For eleven years more he was in a state of tutelage. The evils which generally attend a minority were intensified by war with France, by religious dissensions, by serious social troubles, by the intrigues and disputes of a violent and turbulent nobility, and by plots and treasons within the royal family itself. The French fleets were ravaging the southern coast, the Scottish armies were harrying the northern border, and the taxes which had been collected for national purposes were wasted, or stolen, or embezzled. This reign is filled with a popular rising, an impeachment of one political party by another, personal government on the part of Richard for eight years, the judicial murder of the Opposition Party, the assumption of absolute power by the king, followed by his downfall, deposition, and death.—To carry on the government during the minority of the king, a council was appointed, but not one of the king's four uncles had a seat on it.

(i) The Parliament might have chosen John of Gaunt as king. But he had shown himself unsuccessful in the French wars, he was personally disliked, and the modern ideas of inheritance had taken root.

(ii) The four uncles of Richard had been well provided for by their father Edward III by marrying them to rich heiresses. This had the effect of concentrating large estates in the hands of the royal family—a procedure that might prove to be dangerous to the peace of the realm.

(iii) For the first time in the history of Parliament, the Commons demanded the right to inspect the Treasury Accounts. The Government was in such straits for money that they were obliged to accede to this demand.

(iv) During this reign, “we are walking in a labyrinth of family quarrels, accompanied with a more than usual amount of hatred and dissimulation.”

2 Condition of the Poorer Classes—The plagues and famines and troubles of his grandfather's reign had been early preparing for Richard a harvest of annoyances and difficulties. The peasants, ground to the dust by hunger and galled by the yoke of villenage, began to compare their lot with that of the rich and comfortable, to talk at their village-meetings about their miserable and hopeless condition, and their feelings soon found a public mouthpiece in John Ball, a priest of Kent and a follower of Wychffe. This man went up and down the east of England preaching from one of the familiar rhymes which then passed from mouth to mouth:

“When Adam delved and Eve span,
Where was then the gentleman?”

He insisted upon the “equality” of mankind. On the other hand, the Parliament was constantly striving to thrust the labourer down into a deeper bondage—to make him more and more of a serf, and to prevent him from rising one inch from the soil. The fuel of discontent was ready in large quantities, and in a high state of inflammability, when a poll-tax,¹ to be levied on every man, woman, and young person above fifteen throughout the realm, was voted by Parliament. This was a tax of three groats,² a sum equal to fifteen shillings in the present day, and it was raised to pay for war expenses by land and by sea. The poor man had to pay just as much as the wealthy, and the wealthiest man had to pay no more. The gross injustice of this unheard-of exaction set England on fire from sea to sea. To add to the soreness and the indignation of the poor, this abominable tax had been farmed out to some foreign merchants,

¹ A tax upon persons per head or poll. So a tree with its chief branches cut off is called a *pollard*.

² A form of *great*. A *groat* was originally a big or silver penny.

and the collectors and agents of these men conducted themselves with the greatest brutality and insolence. One of them insulted a daughter of Walter, a tiler at Dartford, in Kent, and the tiler killed him on the spot with one blow of his hammer.

(i) In 1379, a graduated poll tax, proportionate to the wealth of the persons taxed, was imposed. John of Gaunt, or an archbishop, paid £6, 13s. 4d. and a labourer, 4d. The new tax of three groats was an ungraduated poll tax, and it fell with terrible severity on the heads of the very poor. The state of England was very similar to the state of France during the *Jacquerie*.

(ii) "It was a tax of three groats on every person of the kingdom, male or female, of the age of fifteen, of what state or condition soever, except beggars, the sufficient people in every town to contribute to the assistance of the less able, so as none paid above sixty groats, including himself and his wife. But the 'sufficient' found it hard enough to pay for themselves and their families, and the 'less able' took to insurrection."

(iii) The rising was called *Hurling time*,—from *Hurling*—a game with clubs which still survives in Ireland.

3 The Rising of the Villeins, 1381—This was the spark which lighted the fuel of insurrection. In the eastern counties generally, crowds of peasants met together armed with bills¹ and rusty swords, with long-bows and cross-bows. In Essex, their leader was a peasant who took the name of Jack Straw, in Kent, Wat the Tyler. One hundred thousand Kentish men marched upon London, killing every lawyer they could lay hands upon, firing the houses of the stewards, and burning the records² of the manor-courts. The young king and his great officers took refuge in the Tower, which was beset by one part of the mob. Other divisions of the peasants roamed through London, murdering tax-collectors, Flemings,³ and other foreigners, burning the palace of the Savoy—the residence of the Duke of Lancaster, but—with sterling English honesty—always forbearing to plunder. In the sack of the Savoy Palace, they ground to powder the gold and silver plate of the Duke, and when one man was seen to hide a silver vessel under his coat, he was hurled into the flames with his prize. "We be seekers for truth and justice," cried the poor men, "and not thieves or robbers." Next day, the young king, then only a boy of fifteen, went out to a conference with the peasants at Mile-End, in the east end of London. "I am your king and lord, good people," he said with boyish fearlessness, "what will

¹ A kind of long headed axe. 'Where bill men ply the ghastly blow'—*Warrion*.

² Papers containing money accounts or business papers of the parish.

³ Immigrants from Flanders.

ye?" "We will that you free us for ever, us and our lands, and that we be no longer serfs" "I grant it," replied the king, and through the long summer day (it was the month of June) more than thirty clerks were hard at work writing letters of emancipation, with which the Essex men returned joyfully to their homes. Meanwhile the men of Kent had broken into the Tower, seized the Archbishop and the Treasurer and beheaded them upon Tower-Hill.

(i) "Some were armed with clubs, rusty swords, or axes, with old bows reddened by the smoke of the chimney corner, and odd arrows with only one feather."

(ii) Richard promised the peasants that they should have charters under the Great Seal of the Realm, and a free pardon to all who had taken part in the rising. As after events showed, he was most probably only "dissembling as he ought, like his grand father Edward III."

(iii) The Records of the Manor Courts were burnt in order that there might be no written proof of the number and kind of services the "customary tenants" and villeins were bound to perform for their lords.

(iv) The demands of the peasants were (a) a free pardon, (b) the abolition of serfdom, (c) the abolition of tolls and market-dues, (d) the conversion of "customary tenants" into perpetual leaseholders at 4d. an acre.

4 Dispersion of the Villeins—The day after that, the men of Kent assembled in Smithfield, and the king went out to them, prepared to grant them the same franchises and pardons. But a quarrel arose between his train and the leader of the peasants, Wat Tyler, and, in the scuffle, William Walworth, the Mayor of London, stabbed Tyler with his dagger, and the royal squires leapt down from their horses and finished him as he lay upon the ground. The Kentish men bent their bows, when the king rode boldly to the front and cried, "What need ye, my masters? I will be your captain, follow me." And again he issued letters of freedom, and dismissed the peasants with content to their homes. But, though these charters had been granted, they had no legal force until Parliament had also given its consent. "And this consent we have never given, and never will give, were we all to die in one day," was the reply of the landowners. And now the reaction began. The military tenants of the Crown were summoned, the charters were revoked as extorted by force, and the king, with an army of 40,000 men, marched through Kent and Essex, torturing, hanging, drawing, and quartering the poor ignorant country people by hundreds and thousands. John Ball, Jack Straw, and hundreds of others were hanged in chains.

(i) The rioters had been much encouraged by the old soldiers, who told them stories of how the bow of the yeoman was more than a match for the sword of the knight

(ii) The final result of the Rising was that it led the landlords to see that the peasants must be treated more like men most of them set free their villeins many accepted money payments instead of the customary services In less than a hundred years, no bondsmen were left in England

5 The Lords Appellant—John of Gaunt had, in 1386, made an expedition into Spain, for the purpose of seizing on the crown of Castile, to which he made claim through his second wife, a daughter of Pedro the Cruel The Chancellor of the kingdom at this time was Michael de la Pole, Earl of Suffolk In Gaunt's absence, the king's friends and the Opposition, headed by the Duke of Gloucester, came to a more serious rupture than ever, over the question of peace or war The king's friends were the **Peace Party**, the followers of Gloucester formed the **War Party** The Duke of Gloucester, the Earl of Warwick, the Earl of Arundel, and other nobles and bishops, appealed (or accused) five of the king's councillors of high treason, and were from this fact called the **Lords Appellant** Finding that they could not carry their purposes, they took up arms, met the king's friends under De Vere, Duke of Ireland, at Radcot Bridge on the Thames, and defeated them The year after, in 1388, the "**Merciless Parliament**" was summoned, and the Lords Appellant again "appealed" the king's favourites Four were condemned to death, and two of them hanged And now the Duke of Gloucester was all-powerful

(i) In the Parliament of 1386, at Westminster, Michael de la Pole was impeached, and his dismissal demanded The king told this Parliament to mind its own business But Gloucester and Arundel most significantly sent for the Statute of Deposition of Edward II, and had it read publicly in Parliament Richard yielded

(ii) A Council of Eleven was appointed to regulate the Royal Household, the Treasury, etc The friends of Gloucester formed the majority of this Council

(iii) Michael de la Pole was the son of a merchant at Hull, who had lent Edward III large sums of money

6 Richard declares himself of age—The misfortune of Richard was, that he was surrounded by powerful uncles, who intrigued against each other for the management of the kingdom and for power, and took not the least trouble to train the lad for his duties as king Now it was the Duke of Lancaster who had the upper hand, now it was the Duke of Gloucester In 1388 it was the Duke of Gloucester, and he had made a clean sweep of Richard's friends and favourites,

by banishment, by imprisoning, or by beheading Richard never forgave him On the morning of the 3d of May 1389, the king entered the Council-room and smilingly inquired of the duke if he knew how old he was "Your highness," replied Gloucester, "is now twenty-three" "Then am I old enough, fair uncle," the king said, "to manage my own affairs I have been longer under guardianship than any ward in my realm, and I must now try to govern without your help" And with that word, the rule and power of the duke were gone The king removed Arundel from the Chancery, handed the Great Seal to William of Wykeham, and turned the Lords Appellant out of their offices

7 The Lollards—There had been for a long time in England a party, consisting both of churchmen and laymen, who were dissatisfied with the increasing wealth and luxury of the English Church The chief literary voice of this party was John Wycliffe The followers of Wycliffe were called "Hooded Men," and also Lollards by the friars and their other opponents, and this name of Lollards stuck to them in this and in the following reign Lollardism grew gradually to be employed as a term to include every shade of dissatisfaction with the Church—with its doctrines, with the conduct and character of ecclesiastics, with the corruption that was creeping into it from its growing wealth and luxury Queen Anne is said to have favoured the Lollards, and to have read with interest the pamphlets and other writings of Wycliffe But the Archbishop of Canterbury summoned that Reformer and his friend Nicholas of Hereford to answer for their beliefs and statements, and a statute was passed against heretic preachers But Lollardism was not put down, it continued to grow and to create fear in the minds of monks and bishops, and we shall find it, in the next reign, a strong political force that has to be reckoned with

8 Richard's Government—For eight years Richard is said to have managed the affairs of the country with care, wisdom, and success He had married a German princess, who, from her kindly and constant desire to heal the quarrels of the nobles of her husband's court, had received the name of the "Good Queen Anne" On her death, Richard endeavoured to make peace with France by marrying Isabella, the daughter of Charles VI He also made a truce with

the French king for twenty-five years Gloucester was opposed to this peace policy, but, by a bold stroke of treachery, Richard, in 1397, obtained possession of Gloucester's person, hurried him off to Calais, and had him put to death in the castle there. The Archbishop of Canterbury, a confederate of the duke's, was banished, and, fleeing to France, he became there the mainspring of the revolution which not long after hauled Richard from the throne. "Richard had thus destroyed his old enemies, rid himself of the constraint of Parliament, and was practically despotic. 'Then the king began to rule,' says Froissart, 'more fiercely than before. In those days there were none so great in England that durst speak against anything that the king did. He had Council meet for his appetite, who exhorted him to do what he list. He still kept in his wages 10,000 archers. He thus kept greater state than ever, no former king had ever kept so much as he did by 100,000 nobles a year.'" But, as is always the case, Richard was himself the main instrument of his own ruin. He had conducted himself with moderation since 1389, there had been no plots against him, and his rule had been the rule of a constitutional king. But with the French marriage came a great change.

(i) Anne was the eldest daughter of Charles IV, Emperor of Germany. She died of the Plague at Shene (Richmond) in 1394. Richard was out of his senses with grief. He had the palace in which she died torn down, he drew his sword on Arundel for keeping the funeral waiting, and ordered a gorgeous tomb to be erected for her in Westminster Abbey. She is said to have greatly favoured the Lollards.

(ii) Richard's chief purpose for marrying Isabella was to get the help of Charles VI to crush all opposition in England. The French Ambassador said to him, "Ye shall then be of puissance to oppress all rebels for the French king, if need be shall aid you of this ye may be sure." King Richard answered, "Thus shall I do."

9 Absolute Rule, 1397—Richard began to try to rule without parliament—in one word, to make himself an absolute monarch. He induced the Parliament of 1398 (which met at Shrewsbury) to grant him the taxes upon wool—by far the richest taxes in the country—for the term of his life, he had a committee of ten nobles, two bishops and six commoners appointed, whose decrees were to be as binding as the statutes of Parliament itself, and he forced every tenant of the Crown to accept their decrees as always and in all circumstances valid. And now the king was nearly absolute, and could do pretty much as he liked. So he began to raise forced loans,¹ he put seven-

¹ He even compelled some rich persons to give him blank cheques which his treasurer filled in as he pleased.

teen counties into outlawry, and he interfered everywhere with the independence of the judges. In the earlier part of his reign he had disgusted the nobles by his peace policy, the merchants by his extortionate exactions, and the Church by his protection of the Lollards, and these three classes fell away from him, and looked upon his proceedings with detestation and contempt. And now, in 1398, Richard stood almost alone in his kingdom.

(i) The Parliament of Shrewsbury (a) annulled the acts of the Merciless Parliament, (b) granted to the king *for life* the taxes on wool, woolfells, and leather, (c) and handed over its authority to a Board of Eighteen. Richard had thus more power than any English king had ever before been intrusted with. Pope Boniface gave his blessing to these acts and declared them irrevocable.

(ii) "The Statute of the 21st year of Richard II, 1397, is a solemn record of the establishment of a despotic power, under the sanction of Parliamentary forms." "When he was asked to do justice according to the laws, he would say that 'the laws were in his breast' and that the life, lands, and goods of every one of his subjects were at his will and pleasure."

(iii) The king's body-guard consisted of 10,000 Welsh archers, and, with this powerful body, he thought he was strong enough to defy every power. "Sleep in peace, Dickon" was their song, "we'll take care of thee!"

10 Henry of Hereford—Alone as he was, Richard might have continued to stand, had he not set the powerful House of Lancaster against him by an act of the grossest bad faith and tyranny. Henry, Earl of Derby and Duke of Hereford, the eldest surviving son of John of Gaunt, had always been a supporter of Richard in his struggles with the Duke of Gloucester, but Richard had never been without a secret dread of the rising power of the great House of Lancaster, of which Henry was the head. A dispute had arisen between Hereford and the Duke of Norfolk, and the quarrel—as was not unusual in those days—was referred to the trial by arms. The wager of battle was appointed to take place at Coventry. The two dukes are mounted, their beavers are closed, their lances in rest, and they only await the blast of the trumpet to close in mortal fight, when the king gives a signal to stop the combat, and banishes Hereford for ten years, and Norfolk for life. Henry retired to France, and spent his time there in devising schemes, along with Archbishop Arundel, for the recovery of his property and titles, and for a great deal more. The king further took advantage of a base quibble to

forfeited the Lancaster estates, which had been left to his son by his father, John of Gaunt, who died during his absence abroad

11 Richard in Ireland, 1399—Richard had, in the earlier part of his reign, visited Ireland, and reduced the petty kings to peace by sharp and swift measures in a vigorous campaign. But his cousin, the Earl of March, the next heir to the crown—as Richard had no children—had been killed in Ireland in a petty skirmish the year before (1398), and Richard determined to visit the island to avenge this wrong and to settle other matters of State. But this unlucky expedition cost him his crown. Henry, who was now Duke of Lancaster, hearing of his absence, landed at Ravenspur,¹ in Yorkshire, with a handful of men, the great Earls of Northumberland and Westmoreland—the Percies and the Nevilles—at once joined him, the Duke of York, his uncle, who had been left as Regent of the kingdom, was false to Richard, and Henry, meeting no opposition, had only to march straight to London.

12 Richard's Return—No news reached Richard for a whole fortnight after, and when he had crossed and anchored in Milford Haven, the crown was gone and the kingdom lost. Upon landing, most of his troops deserted him, and his steward, the Earl of Worester—the brother of Northumberland—broke his wand of office in Richard's presence, and declared the royal household dismissed. The king himself was betrayed into the hands of the Duke of Lancaster at Flint. "I am come before my time," said the duke, with grim politeness, "but I will show you the reason. Your people, Sir King, complain that for twenty years you have ruled them harshly, but, please God, I will now help you to rule them better." "Fair cousin," replied the king, "since it pleases you, it pleases me also well." Henry brought Richard to London, the citizens of which received him with hootings and groans, while Hereford was applauded to the echo, called a Parliament, read to them a paper in which Richard renounced the throne, and the Archbishops of Canterbury and York led Henry Bolingbroke of Lancaster to the throne amidst the shouts and acclamations of all present. The Three Estates—clergy, nobility, and commons—agreed, jointly and severally, to accept him as their king.

¹ There is no such place now: the sea has encroached upon it and swallowed it up. Compare this with the Goodwin Sands in Kent.

(i) Richard was, in the early part of his reign, very popular with the Londoners. But, in 1392, he had asked them for the loan of £1000, they refused, and from that time ill feeling existed between them. Hereford, on the contrary, was extremely popular, not only in London, but wherever he was known in England. Shakespeare, in his play of *Richard II* (v. 2. 3) says —

“—All tongues cried, ‘God save thee, Bolingbroke!’
 You would have thought the very windows spake,
 So many greedy looks of young and old
 Through casements darted their desiring eyes
 Upon his visage, and that all the walls,
 With painted images, had said at once—
 ‘Jesu preserve thee! welcome, Bolingbroke!’
 Whilst he, from one side to the other turning,
 Bareheaded, lower than his proud steed’s neck,
 Bespake them thus ‘I thank you, countrymen’,
 And thus still doing, thus he passed along”

(ii) The heir apparent to the throne, Roger Mortimer, Earl of March, the grandson of Lionel, Duke of Clarence, had been killed in Ireland in the year 1398. (This young man was the great-great grandson of the Roger Mortimer who was executed in 1330. His mother, Philippa, had married Edmund Mortimer, Earl of March.) At the same time, Parliament had, by electing Henry IV, broken through the custom of succession, as there were nearer heirs to the throne—descendants of Lionel, Duke of Clarence, the third son of Edward III. This change afterwards bore fruit in the long faction fight called the “Wars of the Roses”.

13 Death and Character of Richard—Richard was ordered by Parliament to be “kept secretly in safe ward.” He was, like Edward II, moved about from castle to castle, and his last place of abode was Pontefract¹ Castle, where he was probably murdered by his keeper. Richard was the handsomest man of his time, and not without a share of the great ability of the Plantagenets. But he was idle and luxurious in his habits, dissipated, fond of display (he spent three millions of money on his marriage), and proud and violent in temper. He had in him, unequally mixed, the elements both of an energetic tyrant and of a weak voluptuary, with a dulled sense of right, in which no one could trust. His advisers pressed upon him a peace policy, because they saw that the wars of the late king had drained the country of money, and Richard’s too easy complacence with this policy, joined to his love of arbitrary power, cost him his throne and his life. Richard’s reign appears dull and uneventful compared with the brilliant period of Edward III, but the brilliance of Edward was a superficial brilliance, for the country was drained of

¹ Pronounced *Pontfret*

men and money to conquer lands which it could not keep, while in Richard's time the country was making long strides towards freedom and prosperity. The parallel between Richard II and Edward II is a very striking one. There were the same weakness of character, the same mistakes in government, and the same sad mysterious end.

14 The Work of Parliament—There is no doubt but that Parliament added considerably to its strength during this reign. This is sufficiently proved by the single fact of Sir Thomas Harey having brought forward in 1397 a vote of censure on the king and court. It is true that he was tried, condemned, and afterwards pardoned, but, unless Parliament had gained in power, no such motion could ever have been offered for its acceptance. Even as early as 1386 the Commons had petitioned the king "that the state of his household might be looked into and examined every year." The king, whose household at that time consisted of ten thousand persons (with three hundred of these in his kitchen), was strong enough at that time to refuse compliance. The Statute of Provisors was finally re-enacted in 1392. The Popes had cleverly evaded this law by presenting their own friends to benefices which happened to fall vacant at Rome. Now the best benefices fell vacant there, as the Cardinals were generally at Rome when they died. The Statute of Mortmain had also to be re-enacted in 1391, and the great Statute of Praemunire in 1393. Parliament also passed a Second Statute of Labourers chiefly for the purpose of keeping down the growing tendency of many of the villeins to fall into the condition of mendicancy, and the First Navigation Act to regulate the commerce of the country.

(i) This re-enactment of the Statute of Praemunire prohibited any one from bringing a Papal Bull into the country, on penalty of forfeiture of lands and all personal property, and of imprisonment during the Royal pleasure.

(ii) The Second Statute of Labourers forbade agricultural labourers to change their occupation after twelve years of age, or to leave their village without the king's permission, and provided for the punishment of able-bodied mendicants (or "sturdy beggars").

(iii) The Navigation Act required merchandise to be imported and exported in English ships only.

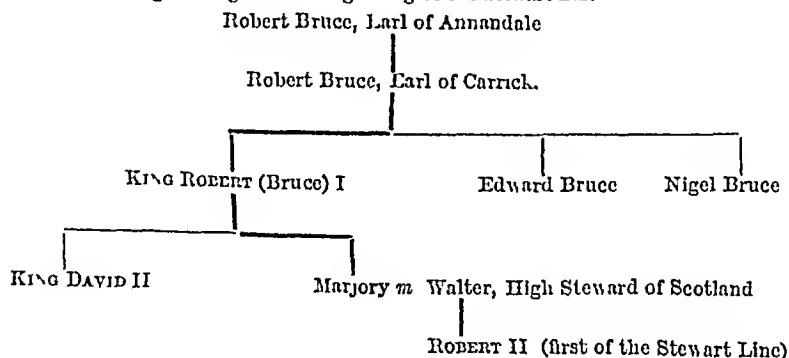
15 Great Men—The two most distinguished political actors in this reign were John of Gaunt, Duke of Lancaster, and his son Henry Bolingbroke, Duke of Hereford,—the former in the beginning, the latter

at the close, of Richard's rule. As the head of the War Party, Thomas, Duke of Gloucester, stands out prominently, while De Vere, Duke of Ireland, and Neville, Archbishop of York, are the most distinguished leaders of the party of Peace. In ecclesiastical politics, John Wycliffe is the most remarkable character, while, in the field of social reform and agitation, Wat Tyler is the most conspicuous. In literature, by far the greatest name is Geoffrey Chaucer, who immortalised the Middle Ages in England by his "Canterbury Tales."

16 Social Facts — Commerce advanced, during the reign of Richard II, by great strides. Wealthy trades banded themselves in guilds or leagues, and received charters of incorporation, and from this reign dates the rise of strong bodies in London like those of the Leather-sellers, the Fishmongers, the Mercers, and the Salters. Winchester School and New College, Oxford, were founded and built by the great architect William of Wykeham, bishop of Winchester.

17 Scotland to 1390 — David II left no children, and was succeeded by his nephew Robert, the High Steward. He took the title of Robert II, and was the first of the Stewart Line of Scottish kings. No event of great importance occurred in Scotland during his reign, but the bonds of friendship between Scotland and France were drawn still closer, and the usual harrying of the English border took place whenever an occasion presented itself. Richard II led an army of 70,000 men against Scotland, the Scotch met it with a force of 30,000 Scotch and French, but no fighting ensued. Richard returned to England after plundering Melrose Abbey. Robert II died in 1390.

(1) The following Table gives the beginning of the Stewart Line —



(ii) The original family name of the Stewarts was Alan or Fitzalan. This family had long held the hereditary office of High Steward, and hence they came to be known by the name *Steward*, or, as it was spoken and written in Scotland, *Stewart*.

The spelling *Stuart* is the French spelling and was not common till the time of Charles II. The French language has no *w* and hence had to write the name with a *u*.

(iii) In one of the numerous raids upon England, the Battle of Otterburn was fought in Northumberland between Douglas and Harry Hotspur. Douglas took Hotspur and his brother Ralph Percy, prisoners. This battle—"the greatest and bloodiest tournament on record"—is described, with imaginative exaggerations, in the "Ballad of Chevy Chase."

"The stont Earl of Northumberland a vow to God did make,
His pleasure in the Scottish woods three summer days to take,
The chiefest harts in Chevy Chase to kill and bear away,
These tidings to Earl Douglas came, in Scotland where he lay

But it was the Scotch who invaded Northumberland

SHORT CHRONOLOGY AND SUMMARY OF RICHARD II'S REIGN

1377	Richard II. succeeds to the throne (a) Peter de la Mare Speaker of the Good Parliament is made Speaker of Richard's first Parliament. (b) The Commons claim the right to see the Treasury Accounts	1396	Richard marries Isabella of France
1380	Ungraded poll tax of three groats	1397	Interference by the king with freedom of debate (a) Sir Thomas Haxey brings in a bill of Censure on the Court. (b) The Commons are obliged to give up his name (c) He is imprisoned
1381.	Rising of the Villeins (Wat the Tyler) (a) Richard satisfies the rioters (b) Richard breaks his promises (c) Villenage comes to an end.	1398	The Shrewsbury Parliament (a) Richard becomes virtually absolute (b) Richard banishes the Dukes of Hereford and Norfolk.
1384.	Death of Wycliffe	1399	Death of John of Gaunt (a) Richard seizes his lands. (b) Richard goes to Ireland. (c) Lancaster lands at Ravenspur (d) Richard returns from Ireland and is entrapped. (e) Richard resigns the crown
1386	Council of Eleven appointed to regulate the royal household and the kingdom		
1387	Defeat of the king's party at Radcot Bridge		
1388	The Marvellous (or Merciless) Parliament		
1389	Richard takes the government into his own hands (a) Good rule for eight years (b) The Commons petition that the Chancellor may not make laws after Parliament has closed		

CONTEMPORARY EVENTS

1380	Charles VI of France succeeds	1390	Robert III of Scotland succeeds
1386	Battle of Sempach (Switzerland)	1396	Battle of Neopolls

ENGLAND IN THE FOURTEENTH CENTURY

1 Revolution—The Fourteenth Century was a period of revolution. It saw not only the two political revolutions which consisted in the depositions of Edward II and Richard II, it saw also the beginnings of great changes in the Church and in the Social Condition of the English people. During the thirteenth century, the higher prelates of the Church had been distinguished rather as political than as social leaders, and the religious corporations of the regular clergy had been growing more and more into mere societies of landowners, whose wealth increased every year, but who took as small a share as they could of the burdens of the State. The parish priests were often ignorant, some of them did not reside in their parishes, while others were described as "threadbare, learned, and devout." The coming of the Friars to England in the early part of the thirteenth century produced many changes for the better. These men gave up their lives to the service of the poor, they lived on the meanest fare, and they fought day and night with fever, leprosy, the plague, and other forms of disease. Towards the end of the fourteenth century, however, much of their zeal had waned, their self-importance and self-indulgence had increased, and many of them had become merely "impudent beggars." The appearance of John Wycliffe as a reformer hastened some of the changes in doctrine and organisation that had been going on, and his translation of the Bible into English became a powerful factor in the moulding of religious thought—Villainage or serfdom began to show signs of breaking up. The Church used its influence, especially at the deathbed of a landowner, in freeing serfs, fugitive serfs became free by finding refuge in the chartered towns, and staying away from their lord for a year and a day, and the Black Death of 1348 dealt the heaviest blow that could possibly be inflicted on slave-labour. More than half the population was swept away—it fell from four to two millions, wages were doubled, and prices rose enormously. The free labourers, or "landless men," as they were called, saw that they were masters of the labour-market, many of them raised their demands as they pleased, others refused to work at all, and joined the crowded ranks of the "sturdy beggars," who roamed at their own sweet will over all parts of the country. In spite of the Statute of Labourers, the value of work rose, and the poor were better paid than in the thirteenth century, and therefore better fed and better clad. Still much misery prevailed, and this

misery culminated in the Revolt of the Peasants at the accession of Richard II

2 Trade—The trade of England was very small. There was not much to sell—except wool, there was not much money to buy from other countries, and the seas swarmed with pirates. The export trade was a trade in raw materials—chiefly wool and wool-fells (or sheepskins). The imports were wine, fine cloth, linens, and spices. Most of the foreign merchants were Germans, and they were formed into a guild called “Merchants of the Steelyard.” Flanders became more and more of a commercial country during this century, the great Flemish towns or “free cities” grew into great standing markets or perpetual fairs, and the commerce of England with Flanders increased with immense rapidity. But the heavy duties (“inletolte”) on wool—sometimes rising to forty per cent—greatly crippled the commerce of the country.

(i) In the year 1354, the total value of the exports was £212,338. They consisted of wool, wool fells, hides, cloth, and worsteds. The imports amounted to only £23,000. These consisted of fine cloth, wax, wine, linens, and groceries. (These sums cannot of course give any idea of the *purchasing power* of money. The usual estimate is that £1 in the Fourteenth Century went as far as £15 to-day.)

(ii) Let us compare this with the imports and exports of 1887. The imports for that year amounted to nearly £84,000,000. The exports to over £75,000,000.

3 Agriculture—The effect of the Black Death was, as we have seen, to raise very greatly the price of labour. One immediate effect of this rise in wages was to make ploughing and tilling too costly, and the consequence of this was to throw a great deal of land out of cultivation, and to turn it into pasturage. Land had become so cheap that much of it could be bought for ten years' purchase. The old average of wages for reapers was 5½d an acre, but this average very soon reached 10d.—or nearly double the old wages. The price of other labour rose in nearly the same proportion: a mason who got 6d a day in the thirteenth century now received 10d. An ox sold for 8s 6d, but a sheep fetched only 1s 6d—the large number of sheep keeping the price of mutton down.

4 Architecture—The Fourteenth Century is the period of Decorated Gothic. The construction is no longer simple, but adorned and moulded in the richest and most elaborate fashion—with carved flowers, delicate leafwork, and curling sprays. Parts of Exeter Cathedral, the west windows of York Minster, and Durham Cathedral are striking specimens of this style.

5 Manners and Customs—In spite of the Black Death, wars, heavy taxes, and other troubles, Englishmen were not dull or depressed.

in the fourteenth century. Indeed, this century, of all the periods in the Middle Ages, was the time when our country best deserved the title of "Merry England." There were all kinds of feasts, festivals, and merry-makings—Saints' days, wakes, fairs, royal pageants, processions, city banquets, Yule-tide feasts, May-day dances, and other opportunities for jollity and merriment. The members of the craft-guilds, and also the clergy, gave gratis representations of dramas, the subjects of which were generally taken from the Old or the New Testament. These representations lasted several days, and were given in the open air. Even pilgrimages were for the most part only picnics or pleasure-parties. The company that gathered at the Tabard Inn in Southwark, and which has been so vividly described by Chaucer in his "Prologue to the Canterbury Tales," was not a company of ascetics, but a society full of eager life, high animal spirits, and the strongest appreciation of fun and humour. They were bound for the shrine of the most famous saint in the country—"St Thomas of England"—the "holy blissful martyr," and, as they rode along the green-turfed lanes, which then served for roads, to Canterbury, they lightened the possible tedium of the way with quips and cranks and jokes and stories. There were many other shrines to which the travelling pilgrims were just as jolly—Our Lady of Walsingham (which Erasmus describes), the North Door of St Paul's, the tombs of St Cuthbert of Durham, of St Edmund at Edmondsbury, and of St Edward the Confessor at Westminster.

(i) These Mystery-Plays are still given at Ammergau in Bavaria, in Mexico and in other Roman Catholic countries. In Mexico, the actor who takes the part of Judas has a very high salary, and is escorted to and from the theatre by a guard of soldiers, lest he should be stoned to death by the people.

(ii) The Tabard Inn in Southwark was a favourite rendezvous for those who wished to go on pilgrimage to the shrine of St Thomas of England. The Inn was only pulled down in the year 1887.

(a) A *tabard* is a herald's coat without sleeves. It formed the "sign" of the Inn.

(b) The word *canter* is said to come from the *Canterbury* amble—the pace preferred by pilgrims to Canterbury, as they rode along the green lanes which were at that time the county roads.

6 Houses, Furniture, etc.—The barons still lived in castles or in "crenelated mansions," which were in reality strong fortresses, walled in and embattled by licence from the Crown. The houses of the poorer classes, built often of mud, generally consisted of a "hall and bower"—that is, a public room for the whole family, and an inner room for the women and children. The furniture was rude enough, even in the houses of the wealthy. Beds, bedsteads, doublets and other articles of dress, were so expensive that they were handed down by will. A few stools, a chest, two or three metal pots

might be the whole of the furniture in a farm-house, and on these "moveables" taxes might be levied. The shoes called "cracowys" had points so long—sometimes as much as half-a-yard—that they had to be attached by silver chains to the knee so as to enable the bearer to walk.—There was no regular system of scavenging in towns, all kinds of filth got heaped up in corners and by-lanes, the crows were the only scavengers, and in this character they were never molested. There were no pavements, and the streets were dimly and brokenly lighted by oil-lanterns drawn up by strings to the end of poles, or even hoisted on church-steeple and towers.—Food was consumed in large quantities, but badly cooked. At a Christmas feast of Richard II, 28 oxen, 300 sheep, besides countless numbers of fowls, were slaughtered daily. During the Church fasts, the coarsest fish were eaten—dog-fish, stock-fish, and conger-eels. Strong spices were largely used in cooking, and wine was often drunk mixed with honey.

(i) Even as late as the seventeenth century, beds were mentioned in wills and handed down to certain favoured persons. Thus Shakespeare left in his will only his second best bed to his wife Anne Hathaway.

(ii) "The wife of Simon de Montfort ate the tongue of a whale dressed with peas, and a porpoise dressed with frumenty, saffron, and sugar."

Cracowys = shoes from Cracow

7 London.—The towns of England in the fourteenth century were not, as we see them now, enormous agglomerations of houses of the same height, build, and character, arranged in monotonous rows called streets, but rather like assemblages of pretty country-houses, each unlike the other, each with some characteristic note, each in its own little garden, and more like the clean rural suburb of a modern English town than like the town itself. If we take London as an example, we may be able to form some idea of an English town in the Middle Ages. It was not what it is now—a vast province covered with houses, and stretching its ever growing arms into five counties, shrouded in smoke and filled with a never ceasing roar of traffic from morning till night. In the first place, it was not one-fourth the size that it is at the present day—it was no larger than Norwich. Moors and heaths lay round it on the north, fair meadows looked in on it from other sides, green lanes and short streets, almost noiseless, divided houses in shady gardens from each other, where the song of birds rang out clear and mirthful. The Londoners were very fond of the hawthorn, and, in the month of May, the streets were full of the smell and the sight of red and white may-blossoms. This was

London, small, and white, and clean,
The clear Thames bordered by its gardens green

Nor were the streets filled with crowds of people dressed in black or in dull neutral hues, the brightest colours lighted up the view—

bright reds, murrey, white, blue, green, and brown, and the dress of every man seemed to be different from the dress of every other, for the dress was distinctive of the rank, profession, or birth of each

8 Language—The end of the Fourteenth Century is the period in the history of our language which marks the highest degree of saturation of the English tongue with French words. Of the three main dialects of English—Northern, Southern, and Midland, the one which had conquered literature for its own was the East Midland Dialect. The Southern dialect had ceased to be employed in books, the Northern dialect became the language of Scottish poets, but the East Midland Dialect became the King's English, and it is from this dialect that our modern English has descended. This was the dialect in which Geoffrey Chaucer wrote his "Canterbury Tales", in the mouths of the courtly classes it became saturated with French words, and Chaucer, who was himself of Norman-French descent, employed this highly Francised English with infinite skill and true perception. This English of the fourteenth century had lost the larger number of its inflections, and was hence much easier to handle by a writer in verse. Verbs, however, still retained their plurals and their infinitives in *en*, and the words *wenten*, *holden*, *tellen*, etc., helped to make the verse more musical and the rhythm more flowing. The saturation of English with French is seen in those double phrases, one member of which is pure English while the other is Norman-French, such as *aid and abet*, *will and testament*, *acknowledge and confess*, *humble and lowly*, and many others with which not only Chaucer, but the English Prayer-Book, abounds. For about three centuries, the Norman-French lords and the English people had been in the habit of tacking on English words to their French, or French words to their English, until the language had thoroughly acquired the habit of running its words in couples

(i) It is worthy of note that though several thousand French words found and kept a place in our English speech, not a single French idiom has been able to hold its ground. Chaucer has such idioms as "I n'am but dead," but this and every other French idiom has entirely disappeared

(ii) The chief grammatical distinction between the dialects is that the Northern has *es* for the plural of verbs, the Midland, *en*, and the Southern, *eth*. There were also, of course, differences in the spelling. The sentence "We stand singing" would appear thus

NORTHERN
We standes singande

MIDLAND
We standen singende

SOUTHERN
We standeth singinde

(iii) It was natural and to be expected that the Midland Dialect should overcome the others. (a) The Northerner would find it hard to understand the Southern Dialect, but both Northerner and Southerner could understand the Midland Dialect, on which they bordered. (b) The Royal Court often resided in the Midlands, and Parliament met at Leicester, Norwich, and other towns oftener than at London

(iv) Professor Earle calls this phenomenon *bilingualism* and says that this habit of tacking together English and French words served the purposes of a living dictionary.

9 Literature—The Fourteenth Century was a period of great activity in literature. Most of this literature was written in the native English speech, for, though the descendants of the Normans still continued to speak French, they understood English better, and found it easier to read English poems and English stories than stories and poems written in French. Among the poets of the century, by far the most distinguished is Geoffrey Chaucer (1310-1400). A page in the household of Lionel, Duke of Clarence (the third son of Edward III, and brother of the Black Prince), a soldier in France and a prisoner there, an ambassador to France and to Italy, Comptroller of Customs, Knight of the Shire for Kent,—he had mixed with all sorts and conditions of men, and was on friendly and human terms with the highest as well as with the lowest. He had thus the most varied experience, and his poems are the best, brightest, and most vivid expression—the truest picture of English social life in the Middle Ages. His poetry and his forms of verse were much influenced by Italian and by French writers, but, in feeling, his work is throughout genuinely English. His broad common-sense, his manliness, his true and acute but always kindly perception of the different phases of human life, his mirthfulness and humour, his joy in country-life, and his power of story-telling, have all combined to make him one of the greatest and most attractive writers in the English language. His most important work is the *Canterbury Tales*.—Another poet of the time, though belonging to a much inferior class, was John Gower (1330-1402), who wrote three long and tedious poems, one in English, one in French, and one in Latin.—Of prose-writers, by far the most important are John Wycliffe (1324-1384), who wrote several important pamphlets on Church matters, and translated the Bible into English, John de Trevisa, who produced an English translation of Ralph Higden's *Polychronicon* (Universal History), and Sir John Mandeville (1300-1371), who wrote his travels in the East, first in Latin, then in French, and lastly in English.—Among Scotchmen, who wrote in "Scotch" or Northern English, the most distinguished writer is John Barbour, Archdeacon of Aberdeen, who wrote a heroic poem called "The Bruce".

(i) William Langlands (1332-1400) was the poet of the English part, as Chaucer was of the Norman part, of the people. His poem is called the "Vision of Piers the Plowman", and it is written in head rhyme (alliterative rhyme), as Chaucer's is in end rhyme.

(ii) Mandeville says that he "put this boke out of Latyn into Frensch, and translated it out of Frensch into Englyssch that every man of my nacioun may understonde it."

PLAN OF DATES
FOURTEENTH CENTURY

1300	1301	1302	1303	1304
			Gulenne restored to Edward I	Stirling surrend
	Mandeville (to 1377)	Silver pennies coined	William Wallace executed	

1310 Revolt of Barons Appointment of Lords Ordainers			The Do	
1311 Inances of Lords Or diners ratified by Parliament	1312 Thomas of Lancaster seizes Gaveston Warwick executes Gave- ston	1313	1321	Pr c C
1314 Battle of Bannockburn Thomas of Lancaster head of the Government	1315 Edward Bruce invades Ireland Famine and high prices	1316 First fruits first collected in England	1324 Roger Mortimer escapes to France John Wycliffe (to 1334)	Qu I Com
1317 King's sickness. John XXII keeps 18 bishops in his own hands for 17 years.	1318 Edward Bruce killed in Ireland	1319	1327 Edward II deposed EDWARD III Edward II murdered	Sec R M

1340 Battle of Sluys. Speaker of Commons chosen (i) Inner and Middle Temple made Inns of Law (ii) Robert Bouchier first lay Chancellor				
1341 Archbishop of Can- terbury demands that peer be tried by his peers	1342	1343	1351 First Statute of Provisors. Church livings not to be in the gift of Rome	
1344	1345	1346 The Battle of Cressy Battle of Neville's Cross	1354	Th f
1347 Surrender of Calais.	1348 The Black Death	1349 The Black Death. First Statute of Labourers	1357	Wi

1370 Massacre of Limoges			Ungraduated	
1371 Beginning of the STEWART LINE in Scotland	1372 Pembroke defeated at Rocelle	1373 Tonnage and poundage granted by Parliament for two years	1381 Rising of the Villains under Wat the Tyler, Jack Straw, etc Virtual end of villenage	
1374 Loss of all France except Normandy, Bayonne and Calais	1375 49 sessions of Parliament were held in this reign About 50 Merchant Gilds now existing.	1376 The Good Parliament Death of Black Prince John of Gaunt in power Lords Latimer and Bevil Im- peached by the Commons (First Instance)	1384 Death of Wycliffe	

1323 Thirteen Years Truce with Scotland	1330 The Queen and Mortimer arrested Mortimer executed		
	1331 Flower of Battle Edward's first battle	1332 Knights of the Shire and Burgesses set apart from Bishops and Barons Parliament first called Parliament first called	1 Battle of Slur Surrender
	1334 Tallage of one fifteenth £50000 (in the collection of this tax)	1335 Edward and Mortimer invade Scotland	1
1329 Death of Robert Bruce. David Bruce (II) succeeds	1337 Edward claims the French Crown Hundred Years War Peter & Penne dissent need	1338	1

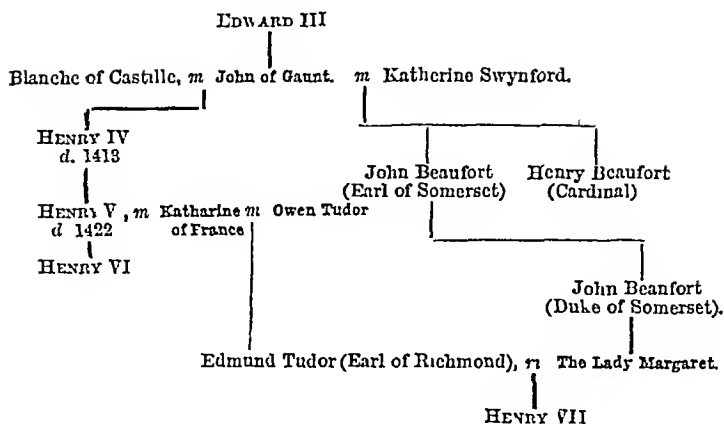
1353 First Statute of Praemunire	1360 Treaty of Brétigny THE GREAT PEACE King John's ransom £1,000,000 gold crowns		
	1361	1362 English to be the language used in the Law Courts	1 John goes to his ransom Returns to London.
	1364 John dies at the Savoy	1365	1
1356 Battle of Poitiers.	1367 Pedro the Cruel of Castile restored by the Black Prince	1368	1 War with France

1327 Pence per head	1390 Woolen cloth first made in England		
	1391 Statute of Mortmain re-enacted Richard annuls the charter of London (The city had refused to fund him £1000)	1392	1 The Great Flood Mercers Co
	1394 The "Good Queen Anne" dies	1395	1 Richard marries of 1 Truce with France

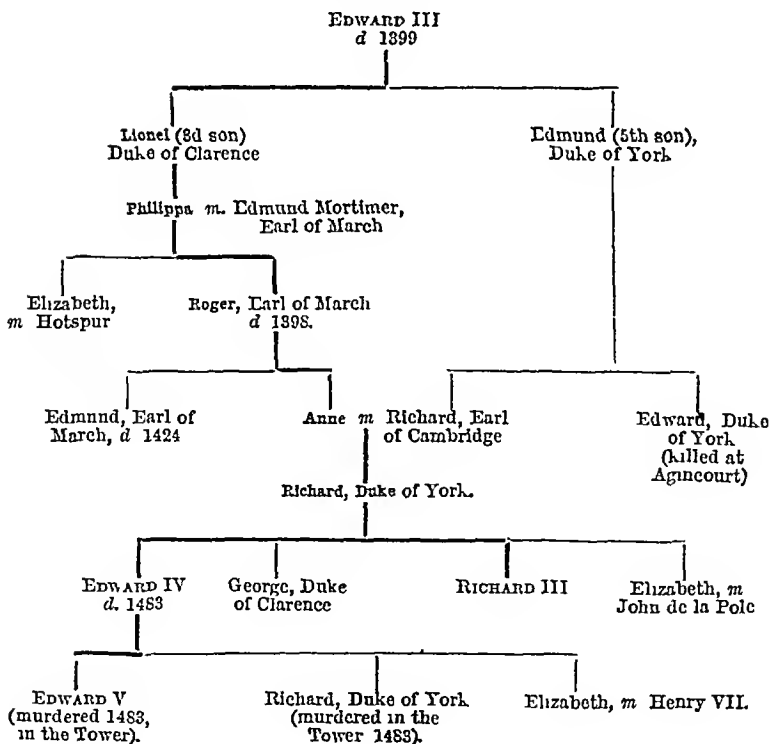
BOOK V.

THE YORK AND LANCASTER KINGS.

THE LANCASTRIAN LINE



THE YORKIST LINE



CHAPTER I

HENRY THE FOURTH

(OF BOLINGBROKE)

Born 1366 Succeeded (at the age of 33) in 1399 Died 1413
Reigned 14 years

HENRY PLANTAGENET (called also Henry of Bolingbroke, from the place of his birth in Lincolnshire) was the oldest surviving son of John of Gaunt (fourth son of Edward III) and Blanche, the only child of the Duke of Lancaster (Blanche was John of Gaunt's first wife). His third wife was Katharine Swynford, whose children were the Beauforts, who were therefore half brothers of Henry IV. Henry IV was twice married (i) in 1380, to Mary de Bohun, "the richest heiress in England," and (ii) in 1403, to Joan of Navarre. By the first marriage he had four sons and two daughters. The sons were Henry V, Thomas (Duke of Clarence), John (Duke of Bedford), and Humphrey (Duke of Gloucester). As Earl of Derby, Henry IV was one of the Lords Appellant, who took an active part against the king's friends, in the Merciless Parliament.

CONTEMPORARY SOVEREIGNS

SCOTLAND ROBERT III
JAMES I

FRANCE CHARLES VI

1 Henry IV, his Claims — Henry of Bolingbroke laid claim to the crown of England on three grounds — conquest, lineage, and election. He had conquered the country, he was descended in the direct line from Edward III, and he had been elected King by the Parliament of England. It was the last of these reasons that was the most important. Henry held his crown from Parliament, and therefore Parliament was a body whose decisions he must respect. The poverty of the Crown—caused chiefly by the extravagance of Richard II,—kept him in continual straits for want of money, and *difficulties, distresses*

therefore under the continual necessity to apply to Parliament for it, while the plots, rebellions, and other difficulties of his reign, the open hostility of France, Scotland, and Wales, made him lean more and more every year on the advice and assistance of Parliament. Hence we shall see the powers of Parliament growing rapidly during this reign, and we shall also see the House of Commons rise to a position which it did not again attain to for more than two centuries. Henry's chief aims were peace, cheap government, and the upholding of the Church.

✓(i) He founded his claim by descent on his relationship, not to Edward III, but to Henry III. This was done for the purpose of not being obliged to acknowledge the heirs of Lionel, Duke of Clarence, who was the third son of Edward III, while John of Gaunt (his father) was only the fourth.

(ii) Plots against Henry began the day he was crowned, and went on for nine years.

(iii) "Raised to the throne by a Parliamentary revolution, and resting its claims on a Parliamentary title, the House of Lancaster was precluded by its very position from any resumption of the last struggle for independence on the part of the Crown, which had culminated in the bold effort of Richard II. During no period of our early history were the powers of the two Houses so frankly recognised."—GREEN

2 Henry IV 1399-1413—Henry had gained a throne and power, but the throne was an unstable seat, the power had to be fought for almost every day of his life, and the story of his reign is a story of plots, intrigues, conspiracies and wars. Troubles without and troubles within kept his mind and his time constantly occupied, and it is the most signal proof of his great ability that he could maintain his seat upon the throne at all. France and Scotland never acknowledged him as king during his whole life, and Wales was in open rebellion. With reason does Shakespeare make him say,

"Uneasy lies the head that wears a crown."

The true heir to the throne was Edmund Mortimer, the young Earl of March, and great-grandson of Lionel, Duke of Clarence, the third¹ son of Edward III. This person was a mere child, and was kept by Henry in "honourable confinement," but from his just claims sprang a war during Henry's own lifetime, and also, at a later period, the long and disastrous Wars of the Roses.

(i) The French—whose king, Charles VI, was insane—refused the title of King to Henry IV, and demanded back the little Queen Isabella and her dowry.

¹ John of Gaunt was only the fourth son.

(ii) The Scotch—whose king, Robert III, was also insane—refused homage to Henry. Henry marched as far north as Leith, but the Duke of Rothsay, the heir apparent, held the Castle of Edinburgh. Henry, who did not wish to lay waste the country, beat a retreat for want of provisions.

(iii) The Earl of March was living at Windsor Castle.

3 Plots and Fears—It was generally reported that Richard was still alive in Scotland, and Henry, to dispel this suspicion, had his body brought to London and exhibited for several days in St Paul's.—The first conspiracy against Henry was formed by the Earls of Huntingdon and Kent, Richard's half-brother and nephew, who took up arms, but were utterly defeated at Cirencester. Numerous executions followed, the heads of the victims were sent to London, and were met by a procession of bishops, abbots, and priests, with the Archbishop of Canterbury at their head, chanting a *Te Deum* of thanksgiving for victory over their enemies. But no sooner was this rebellion suppressed than Henry had to face a much greater and more terrible danger. The Percies of Northumberland had been Henry's chief supporters against Richard, and to them, indeed, he owed his crown. They did not find him very grateful. Sir Edmund Mortimer, one of the Lords Marchers, and the uncle of the young Earl of March, had been taken prisoner by Owen Glendower, and Henry refused to allow his friends the Percies to ransom him. Nay, more, the Percies, who "kept" the borders against the Scots, had defeated a Scottish army at Homildon Hill in 1402, and had made a large number of knights and nobles prisoners. The ransom¹ of prisoners was a great source of gain in those times, the price of each being regulated according to his rank, and the Percies looked to this as one means of paying their heavy war expenses. But Henry refused to allow them to ransom a single knight.

(i) "On the 12th of March 1400 a grand funeral was carried through the streets of London. A litter covered with black cloth, and a canopy of the same, were drawn by four black horses, and followed by four knights in mourning weeds. The procession moved at a foot's pace as far as Cheapside, where there was a halt for two hours, and all who would might come and look at the face of the dead man as it lay on the bier, the head soldered down on a black cushion, and the features uncovered from brow to throat, so that all might know the effeminate regularity and beauty that had characterised the unhappy Richard of Bordeaux. For two hours it lay on a bier in St Paul's, and at least twenty thousand spectators came to look at the king they had so lately reviled"—YONGE *to reproach, to calumniate*

¹ The word *ransom* is a shortened French form of the Latin word *redemption*, buying back.

(ii) The Battle of Homildon Hill was one of those victories won wholly by the English long bowmen. Not a sword was drawn 'The Scottish host looked like a huge hedgehog bristled over with a thousand shafts whose feathers were red with blood'

✓ (iii) The Earl of Northumberland and his son Harry Percy were Wardens of the East and West Marches

(iv) Henry IV was also in debt to the Percies to the amount of £20,000. The bad state of the finances and the hardness of the House of Commons made it difficult to pay this, and the Percies thought themselves very badly used.

4 A Strange Alliance—The Percies now formed a singular but strong alliance—an alliance with their chief prisoner, the Scotch Earl of Douglas, with Glendower, and with Sir Edmund Mortimer. Their object was to place Richard—if alive—upon the throne, or, failing him, the young Earl of March. Henry Percy (called Hotspur), with his uncle the Earl of Worcester, now marched west, with an army of 14,000, to join Glendower, but before a junction could be effected, Henry fell upon them near Shrewsbury and utterly defeated them. Hotspur fell in the front of the battle, and Worcester was taken and executed in 1403. The Earl of Northumberland escaped punishment by making plausible excuses, and was soon engaged in another revolt in 1405, along with Scrope, the Archbishop of York, who was executed for high treason. Glendower, however, having assumed the title of *Prince of Wales*, never yielded during the whole of Henry's reign, but kept up the war with varying success until his death in 1415.

✓ (i) Harry Percy (or Hotspur) had married Elizabeth Mortimer, the sister of Sir Edmund.

(ii) The French had sent troops to Wales to help the insurgents.

✓ (iii) Northumberland escaped to Scotland, where he lived for some years in exile. In 1408 he raised a small army in the north, but was met and defeated by the Sheriff of Yorkshire, at Bramham Moor, near Tadcaster.

5 France—Henry had a firm hold over Scotland by his possession of James, the heir apparent to the Scottish crown, and of Murdoch, the son of the Duke of Albany, who was then Regent of Scotland for his insane brother Robert III. On that side, therefore, he had no fears. On the side of France, he might feel equal confidence. The king, Charles VI, was insane, and the country was convulsed by the struggle between the Armagnacs and the Burgundians—the rival houses of Orleans and Burgundy. At one time

Henry helped the one party, at another, the other, and thus he made his weight felt everywhere in France. He intended to lead an army into France himself, but the state of his health prevented this. He sent his second son, the Duke of Clarence, to lay waste Maine and Touraine, and to win back the old English possession of Aquitaine.

6 The Lollards.—To Henry IV belongs the infamy of having been the first English king who put men to death by statute for their religious opinions. He had purchased the favour of the Church by promises and pledges in favour of orthodoxy, and, when he had ascended the throne, the bishops demanded the fulfilment of these pledges. John of Gaunt was the patron and protector of Wycliffe; his son became the bitterest persecutor of Wycliffe's followers. In the reign of Richard II, the Commons would not permit even the imprisonment of heretics, and now these unhappy men were burnt by the sole authority of the Ecclesiastical Court. There were two chief reasons for this. Archbishop Arundel had been Henry's great supporter, and the Church was powerful and rich—so rich as to have a revenue equal to one-third of the whole revenue of the kingdom. In the third year of Henry's reign was passed the statute "Concerning the Burning of a Heretic,"¹ and it is worthy of remark that both the statute itself, and the petition which led to it, were written in Latin, a language which had not hitherto been used in parliamentary enactments. The first victim was Sir William Sautre,² Rector of St Osyth's, London. He was burnt in February 1401, and the stake and fagot were kept hard at this work till Henry's death.

(i) The Act *De Heretico comburendo* was not passed by the Commons, but only by one of the Three Estates—namely, the clergy. The act was procured chiefly by the influence of Archbishop Arundel. The clergy were afraid that the Lollards would take the property of the Church, and that their doctrines would be the ruin of souls.

(ii) If the heretic refused to abjure, or if he relapsed after abjuration, he was given up to the sheriff or other local magistrate to be publicly burned.—A note of the expenses of burning a heretic occurs now and then in the municipal accounts of cities and boroughs. One lady left a fund to the City of London for this purpose.

(iii) There was a strong political element in Lollardism. "The germ of socialism which no doubt existed in the Lollard doctrine, and which showed itself in the constant demand for the abolition of the wealth of the clergy, alarmed the barons, and made them strong supporters of orthodoxy."

¹ *De Heretico comburendo* (= Concerning the Burning of a Heretic)

² Various spellings: *Sautre Sautrie Sautre Sautree Sauter*

(iv) The labour question was really at the root of the Lollard movement. The baronage was pitilessly adverse, the Church largely indifferent to the condition and to the rights of the over-worked and half-starved peasantry. Similar influences and circumstances produced in Germany about the same time, the cruel "Peasant's War." As the jovial holiday life of Mediaeval England is portrayed in the "*Canterbury Tales*," the dark side of the picture is presented in Langland's "*Vision of William concerning Piers the Plowman*." This poem, in native alliterative verse the work of an unsparing realist of his time, who knew the facts at first hand is the great literary monument of Lollardism.

7 The Work of Parliament—Parliament during this reign met nearly every year. When Henry had defeated the Percies at Shrewsbury, he was unable to follow up and reap all the fruits of his victory. He was unable to pursue Glendower into Wales. Henry asked the Commons for supplies. The Commons replied that Henry had revenue enough, if only it were well spent. Henry had to give

Great and
Continual
Council
1404

way. The Commons now demanded, as a condition of supplies, that a "*Great and Continual Council*" of Twenty-two should be appointed. This was done, and they then granted a tax of one shilling on every pound's worth of land or other property in England. But they also appointed four "*War-Treasurers*" to see how this money was spent.—In 1407 a still greater advance was made, for, in that year, the Commons succeeded in establishing the constitutional maxim that all money grants must originate in their House, and not in the Lords. They also succeeded in establishing another very important constitutional point—that money voted for a particular object should be spent for that object, and for no other. For this purpose, they paid such money grants into the hands of Treasurers appointed by themselves, and they also insisted on a periodical and rigorous examination and audit of all accounts. This right of audit was never contested by the kings of the House of Lancaster. The Commons went even further. They regulated the Royal Household, and took care that no officer of the Household should hold his place for life or even for a fixed term. All these and other arrangements virtually established a strictly limited monarchy.—An important act was also passed for prohibiting the keeping of the bands of men called Retainers.

(i) The idea of appointing Ministers by consultation between King and Parliament was first started in Edward III's time, but it was now made real and practical.

(ii) In the end of the year 1404, the *Indoctum Parliamentum* (=Lay or Illiterate

Parliament) met gave the king large taxes, and proposed that he should take one year's income from the clergy for his wars

It was called the *Lay Parliament* because the writs issued forbade lawyers to be chosen members, as it was thought that they were in the habit of wasting time by upholding points of law "

(iii) In 1410, the Knights of the Shire proposed to the king that he should take one third of the revenues of the Church for maintaining his army, one third for his own needs, leaving one-third for the revenue of the bishops and other clergy But the king was under too great obligations to the Church to think of this

They pointed out that this would support 15 Earls 1500 Knights and 6000 men at-arms

(iv) In the latter part of the reign, a Council of sixteen was appointed, at the head of which was the Prince of Wales

(v) Retainers were men who wore the badge or livery of some great baron, living or not in, but—in the neighbourhood of his castle, and always ready to fight in his quarrels They were often disbanded soldiers, they constituted small private standing armies, and enabled the barons to make private war on each other or on the king

8 The Prince of Wales—Henry trained his sons to take an active part in public affairs, and his eldest son, Henry of Monmouth, seems to have been present at most of his Councils Thomas, Duke of Clarence, the second son, was the Lieutenant-Governor of Ireland, and John, Duke of Bedford, the third, ruled those parts of France which still remained subject to England The Prince of Wales was as popular with the people of London as his father had been before him in his youth, and Henry, who was very jealous and suspicious of every one, had at one time a fear that his son intended to supplant him But an interview which the Prince of Wales sought with his father freed his mind from this suspicion

(i) There is a celebrated story told about the Prince of Wales It is said that one of his suite had been brought for some offence before Gascoigne, the Chief-Justice of the King's Bench, the young Henry went down to the Court, imperiously demanded the release of his servant, and, upon the refusal of the judge, drew his sword The judge, not in the least dismayed by this attack of the king's son, at once ordered him into prison for contempt of court Henry submitted and obeyed When the king heard of it—"Happy is the king," he said, "who has a judge that is no respecter of persons, and a son who knows he is subject to the law "

(ii) It is said that the Beauforts advised Henry IV, harassed as he was by ill health and by enemies, to abdicate in favour of his eldest son

(iii) This did not meet with Henry's approval, and it may be due to this suggestion that Prince Henry was dismissed from the Council in 1412

9 Death and Character of Henry IV—Henry, whose health had never been strong since his accession, was fast breaking down

under the steady pressure of numerous anxieties. One day, while prying at the shrine of Edward the Confessor, in Westminster Abbey, he was seized with an epileptic fit. He was carried into the Jerusalem Chamber, where the Convocation of the clergy now meets, and laid upon a pallet before the fire. Upon coming to his senses, he asked where he was, and upon being informed, he recalled to mind an old prophecy which had said that he should die in *Jerusalem*.

"It hath been prophesied to me many years,
I should not die but in Jerusalem
Which, verily, I supposed the Holy Land —
But bear me to that chamber, there I'll lie,
In that Jerusalem shall Harry die!"

He never rose from his bed again, but pined and drooped and sickened, and died a few days afterwards, on the 20th March 1413. He is said to have been a man who "never lost his presence of mind, and seldom lost his temper." His character was full of contradictions, of good qualities and bad qualities, of strong and of weak elements, it "was too good for banning, and too bad for blessing." He was at heart cold and unsympathetic, selfishness was his ruling passion, and he too easily forgot the services which others had rendered to him.

10 Great Men —Among the most distinguished men of this reign were Thomas Arundel, Archbishop of Canterbury, who several times served the office of Chancellor, and was always a staunch friend and thoughtful adviser of Henry, Thomas Beaufort, and Henry Beaufort, bishop of Winchester. The two Beauforts were half-brothers of the king, and both of them were Chancellors of England for some years. In war, the chief actors were Harry Percy (or Hotspur), the son of the Earl of Northumberland, and Owen Glendower, who maintained his independence throughout Henry's reign and for some years after.

The chronicles of Jean Froissart, a Frenchman born at Valenciennes in 1337, relate, in a very vivid and picturesque style, the chief events, battles, and political arrangements of the century. His book covers the area from 1326 to 1400.

11 Social Facts —King Henry IV. instituted, at his coronation, a new order of knights,—the Knights of the Bath. The Guildhall in the city of London was rebuilt. Towards the end of the century, glass windows, tiles instead of thatch, and candles were introduced. The wages paid for labour had been rising ever since the Black Death,

and we find that haymakers now received a penny a day, ordinary labourers, three-halfpence, carpenters, twopence, and masons, as much as threepence. That these wages were high may be seen when we compare them with the price of a horse, which could be bought for 18s 4d, and when we find that a fat sheep cost only three shillings.

(i) In 1399 the Order of the Bath was instituted. When young esquires were made knights, they had to watch their armour all night in the church of their patron saint, and to bathe themselves in the morning in token of the purity which they must henceforward show in their lives. Henry made forty-six Knights of the Bath at his coronation.

(ii) "The fifteenth century witnessed, if not the entire extinction of serfage, at least its limitation within very narrow bounds. Economic laws proved too strong for the governing classes, and they found their account rather in dealing with the labourer as a free man to be bargained with, than in treating him as a serf to be compelled to work against his will for nothing."—GARDINER.

12 Scotland (i)—Robert II was succeeded on the throne by his eldest son John, who took the title of Robert III. He was a man feeble in body, in mind, and in will, and the Scottish Estates, in the year 1398, appointed his eldest son Robert, Duke of Rothesay, Regent of the Kingdom of Scotland. But the most powerful man in the kingdom was in reality the king's brother, the Duke of Albany, a wicked and unscrupulous noble. Albany had his nephew Rothesay arrested, threw him into a dungeon at Falkland Palace in Fife, and there left him to die of starvation. Robert III died in the year 1406.

(i) "John was the name given to him in baptism, yet so odious had the words 'King John' become, as the title of him (John Balliol) who bore the odium of selling the national independence, that it was deemed a prudent policy to give the new king the popular name of Robert, although that was held by his younger brother."—BURTON.

(ii) The title of *Duke* was a new title in Scotland and was at first reserved for members of the royal family.

13 Scotland (ii)—In 1400, Henry IV revived the old claim over Scotland, and marched an army to Leith. The Scotch kept out of the way, and the English had only to march back again.—In 1406, James, the heir to the Scotch throne, was on his way to France to be educated, and also to be out of the reach of his too-powerful uncle the Duke of Albany, when he was captured at sea and carried to Windsor, where he remained a prisoner for nineteen years. He re-

ceived from Henry an excellent education. While in captivity he wrote a poem, in the style of Chaucer, called "The King's Quhair"¹ (or the "King's Book"). On the death of Robert III the Duke of Albany became regent. In 1411 was fought the Battle of Harlaw, in Aberdeenshire. This was a battle between the Scotch Kelts (or Celts) and the Lowlanders, who are of Teutonic extraction, being a mixture of Saxon, Danish, and Norwegian blood. The Kelts were led by *Donald*, Lord of the Isles and Earl of Ross, and then lord over half of Scotland, and the Lowlanders by *Alexander Stewart*, Earl of Mar. The Lowlanders gained the day, and by many this battle is regarded as a greater national deliverance than the victory at Bannockburn, as it fixed the power of the nation in those who were given to industry and settled habits. The shifting of power and influence from the Highlands to the Lowlands had been going on for generations.

"Henry retired with the most bloodless and inoffensive army that ever entered Scotland. —BURTON

¹ *Quhair* is a form of the word *quire* (of paper)

SHORT CHRONOLOGY AND SUMMARY OF HENRY IV's REIGN

1399	Henry IV raised to the throne (a) Acts of Parliament of Shrewsbury annulled (b) Acts of Merciless Parliament confirmed.	1406	(a) James son of the Scottish king captured at sea. (b) Conspiracy of Archbishop Scrope and others in favour of the young Earl of March.
1400	(a) Rising of some of the Lords Appellant. (b) Murder of Richard II (c) Rebellion of Glendower	1406	The Commons demand a Proper Audit of the accounts of moneys granted by them
1401	Act De Heretico comburendo William Sawtre burnt first execution in England for heresy	1407	The Commons acquire the sole power of originating money grants
1402	Battle of Homildon HILL.	1410	The Knights of the Shire offer to the king the lands of Church for the support of an army
1403	(a) Rebellion of the Percies Glendower and Mortimer, with Douglas. (b) Battle of Shrewsbury	1411	Petitioners prohibited by Parliament.
1404	"Great and Continual Council" of twenty-two appointed at request of the Commons	1412	Prince of Wales is dismissed from the Council.
		1413	Death of Henry IV

CHAPTER II

HENRY THE FIFTH

(OF MONMOUTH)

Born 1388 Succeeded (at the age of 25) in 1413 Died 1422
Reigned 9 years

HENRY OF MONMOUTH was the eldest son of Henry iv and Mary of Bohun (His brothers were Thomas, Duke of Clarence, John, Duke of Bedford and Humphrey, Duke of Gloucester) When only thirteen, he led an army into Wales against Glendower, but was defeated He married, in 1420, Katharine of France, the daughter of Charles vi They had only one son, Henry of Windsor, afterwards Henry vi

CONTEMPORARY SOVEREIGNS

SCOTLAND JAMES I FRANCE CHARLES VI POPE MARTIN V (1417)

1 The New Reign —The task before Henry v was a much more simple and easy one than that which had fallen to the lot of his father The dynasty was fairly secure—in spite of the existence of the young Earl of March, the organisation of law and justice was in smooth working order, and the young king had had a good deal of practice in the art of government during the lifetime of Henry iv The plot promoted by the Lollards, and the more dangerous plot in favour of his cousin the Earl of March, he was destined easily to overcome There is, however, in this reign very little indeed of the history of England, it is almost entirely filled with wars in France

2 Henry V, 1413-1422 —In one of the conversations which took place between father and son, Henry v is said to have replied to a remark of his father "By your sword you won your crown, and by my sword will I keep it" And the war with France, undertaken with a view to give employment to restless spirits, and to keep his

enemies in England quiet, was the result of this early-formed resolution. Shakespeare has, in his representations¹ of the young Prince of Wales, induced among the English people the belief that he was an extravagant, idle, reckless roysterer, whose companions were men of great wit, but of no character—like Falstaff and Bardolph. But the historical evidence points in just the opposite direction. We find him at the age of fifteen Lieutenant of Wales, with full powers of ruling the country, of inquiring into offences, executing or pardoning offenders, and summoning to arms the king's lieges, and we find him also President of the Council at the early age of eighteen. When Henry IV died, his accession to the throne was hailed with universal joy. Wishing to separate himself from the cruel and high-handed acts of his father, he released the young Earl of March from captivity, recalled the heir of the Percies from exile, and restored him to his earldom, and he had the body of Richard II buried with great splendour in Westminster Abbey.

3 The Lollards—In the first year of Henry's reign, the Lollards, with Sir John Oldcastle—an old friend and companion of the king—at their head, were the cause of some trouble and anxiety. Oldcastle—Lord Cobham by marriage—was arrested and thrown into the Tower, and Henry tried to induce him to recant, but without success. Oldcastle was inflexible, he was put upon his trial, was convicted of heresy, and condemned to be burnt. He was allowed, however, to escape from the Tower, and he lay hid for some years in Wales. He was again arrested in 1417, and, in spite of the old friendship of the king, was hung alive in chains, and a fire burnt slowly beneath his feet.

(i) In 1414 Oldcastle made a plot with his Lollard friends to seize Henry at Eltham (in Kent) but the plot broke down. Their next plan was to meet in force in St. Giles's Fields, but Henry closed the gates of London, dispersed the gathering, and put to death a number of Lollards. (They had posted declarations on the doors of the City Churches that a hundred thousand men were ready to fight in their cause.)

(ii) The Lollards were detested not only as heretics, but as reformers. Their policy contained the following heads: the abolition of serfdom, the doing away with heavy taxes, and the taking the lands of the Church for the defence of the country.

4 The Hundred Years' War—The Hundred Years' War was resumed by Henry in 1415. Henry renewed the claim to the

¹ In his play of Henry V.

French crown made by his great-grandfather Edward III—a claim which was, in Henry's case, entirely groundless. The French king, Charles IV, was insane, and the country was torn by two rival factions. Henry appointed his brother, the Duke of Bedford, regent of the kingdom, and prepared to embark with an army of 30,000 men at Southampton. His embarkation was delayed for a few days by the discovery of a conspiracy to place the Earl of March on the throne. Richard, Earl of Cambridge, who had married the Earl of March's sister,¹ Lord Scrope, and Sir Thomas Grey, were the chief conspirators. After a short trial, they were all found guilty of high treason, and put to death on the scaffold.

5 The Landing in France—Henry sailed across the Channel to Harfleur, a town at the mouth of the Seine, and laid siege to it. It was defended with the most stubborn obstinacy, but, after a fierce struggle, it was compelled to surrender to the new artillery of Henry. He had a number of large cannon, called *bombards*, and an old writer says of them, that they “vomited from their fiery mouths vast quantities of stones, with a vehement explosion and a terrific and intolerable noise.” Disease and death had made great havoc in the English army, and thinned it down to one-third of its original number, the fleet was driven off the coast by bad weather, and Henry offered to give up his conquest if he were allowed to retire peacefully upon his English town of Calais. But the French, who had now assembled an army about ten times the number of the English, would listen to nothing but unconditional surrender. Henry preferred death, and resolved to cut his way at all risks to Calais.

(i) Among the causes of the war were (a) The bishops wished to divert the attention of Parliament from the immense breadth of land held by the Church, (b) the nobles were tired of peace and a country life, and (c) the merchants wanted to find new markets.

(ii) The pay in Henry's army was as follows. A Duke, 13s. 4d. a day, an Earl, 6s. 8d., a baron, 4s., a knight, 2s., a man-at-arms, 1s., an archer, 6d. The ordinary wages of labourers was at this time 4d. a day and hence it was easy to find men who would gladly come for 6d. There was also the prospect of prize money and pillage.

(iii) Many foreigners still held benefices in England, and the Archbishop of Canterbury and his colleagues agreed that the incomes of all the “alien priories” should go to Henry for his war expenses.

6 Henry's March—With a weary, sickly, and half-starved but

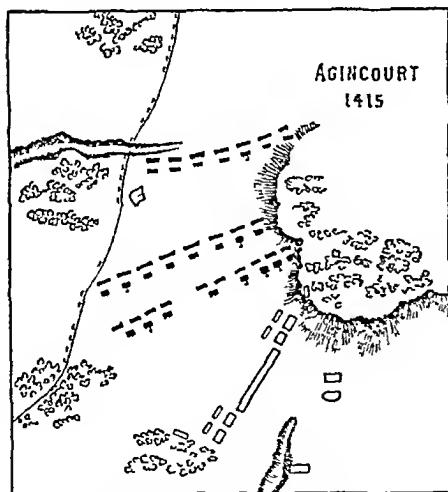
¹ Their son was Richard Duke of York—the father of Edward IV.

still courageous force, he succeeded, after making a long detour, in crossing the Somme, and found himself face to face with a French army of about eighty thousand men. The English spent the night before the battle in confession and taking the sacrament, the French in drinking, singing, and playing at dice for the ransoms of the prisoners they looked forward to making. Henry sent out David Gam, a Welshman, as a spy to discover the force and position of the enemy, and this fiery but light-headed gentleman returned with the graphic but not very instructive report that there were "enough to be killed, enough to be taken, and enough to run away." One of Henry's friends expressed a wish for "but one ten thousand of those men in England that do no work to-day," but Henry answered "No, not a single man more. If we are to die, the smaller loss for England, if to conquer, the greater honour for each man of us."

(i) Henry tried to keep along the coast, and to cross the Somme at "White Shingle Ford" (Blanchetaque), where Edward III had crossed to fight the battle of Cressy, but the ford was too strongly held. He was accordingly obliged to make his way up the river, to beyond Peronne, where the stream is small, and then to strike northward.

(ii) The total efficient force at Henry's disposal seems to have been nine hundred men-at-arms and five thousand bowmen.

7 Agincourt, October 25, 1415 — The odds were over twelve to



one. Henry relied most on his English bowmen, on "the crooked stick and the grey-goose wing," which had already at Cressy and Poitiers proved their power against the mailed chivalry of feudal knighthood. He ordered each archer to provide himself with a stake, sharpened at both ends, which he was to plant firmly in the ground on the approach of cavalry, and he concealed a small

party of archers in the neighbouring village of Tramecourt. The French army advanced between the woods of Tramecourt and

Agincourt, in a space very much too confined for the movements of heavy-armed cavalry, and their front was so narrow that "the dense masses were drawn up thirty men deep" Before beginning the battle, the English knelt down as one man and prayed to God for a few moments, and each man solemnly put a small piece of earth into his mouth, in remembrance of the fact that of dust he was formed, and to dust must very soon return Then, with loud shouts and English hurrahs, they slowly and steadily began their advance The French had received orders to keep in their ranks, and to allow the small body of the English to weary themselves out But the first flight, the thick and ugly "iron sleet" of the English arrows, broke their patience, and roused their personal and national pride The dense body of men-at-arms put spurs to their horses, and plunged heavily forward through mry and new-ploughed ground, the sharpened stakes were driven into the earth, shower after shower of arrows found their way between the joints of the armour of the French knights, the horses became unmanageable from their wounds, and turned back upon their own lines, and the French knights became locked in one solid, helpless, heaving and struggling mass Now was the time for the English footmen Slung their bows on their backs, they rushed from behind their stakes, ran in among the plunging and entangled horses, and, with bill-hook, mace, and axe, cut and hacked the high-born French knights to pieces at their will The living fell upon the dead, the dead fell upon the living, and the English climbed up these horrible writhing heaps and butchered the knights and men-at-arms below Henry wore his jewelled crown upon his helmet, and was everywhere and always in the front of the fight His crown was cleft by the sword of the Duke of Alençon, his armour and shield were dented and battered and hacked, and twenty French knights, having sworn on the cross of their swords to capture or to kill him, made at him in one compact mass, but every man of them was laid dead at his feet The battle had only lasted three hours, and eleven thousand Frenchmen lay dead upon the field—among them the Constable¹ of France, seven French princes, and one hundred great barons It was another blow to the ascendancy of the ponderous but inefficient mail-clad knight

¹ Constable—the highest military rank in the army of Old France (The word comes from the Latin *Comes Stabuli*—Count of the Stable and is therefore similar in meaning to *Marshal*)

(i) The mistake of the Constable of France was that he drew up his men between two woods, in three divisions—only the front one of which could act, and in muddy and new ploughed ground.

(ii) The English bowmen had wisely taken off one shoe, so that one foot might keep a firm hold in the slippery ground. They had also stripped to the waist, so that their arms might be more free. (Henry had stirred the anger of the archers by telling them that the French had sworn to maim every archer they captured—so that he should never be able to shoot again.)

(iii) When the English had beaten the first division with arrows from a distance, and with sword and axes at close fighting, it fell back upon the second division. This was attacked in the same way, and with the same result. Both fell back on the third division. The third division was attacked in the same way, and a flank movement from Tramecourt completed the overthrow of the whole army.)

When the first flight of arrows had come from the English bowmen, these Frenchmen came pricking down, as if they would have overridden all our company. But God and our archers made them soon to stumble for our archery shot never arrow amiss that did not pierce and bring to ground horse and man. And our stakes made them stop and overturned them one upon another so that they lay in heaps two-spears high. And our king with his company and his men-at-arms and archers thrashed on them so thick with arrows, and laid on with strokes. And our king fought like a man with his own hands. It seemed as though they were hammering upon anvils."

8 The Return to London—The battle of Agincourt was fought not far from Cressy, and the victory was even greater than the victory of that day. A sudden alarm caused Henry to give an order to kill the prisoners, but the massacre was stopped as soon as Henry had learned that no renewal of the battle was intended. The loss of the English amounted to about 1600, and this loss had fallen chiefly on the foot-soldiers. Henry now embarked his troops and returned to England. When the king's ship sailed into the port of Dover, the people rushed into the sea, hoisted Henry in their arms, and bore their young hero to the shore. Twenty thousand Londoners, all wearing "the devices of their crafts" and gilds, met him at Blackheath and escorted him into London, but the king—a modest Englishman—would not allow his helmet and armour, which bore many deep marks of battle, to be carried before him. Parliament granted him a subsidy for life on wool and leather, and eagerly voted him large sums to carry on the war.

By granting him the tax on wool and leather for life, Parliament gave up so much of its own power, and could not therefore control the purse of the king.

9 Treaty of Troyes, May 21, 1420—In 1417 Henry again invaded Normandy, beat down all before him, and took fortress after

fortress, and town after town Rouen was gallantly held by a noble Frenchman, Alan Blanchard, but so close was the blockade, that it was at last subdued by hunger. "War," said Henry, with all the inhumanity of his father, "has three handmaidens ever in attendance upon her—fire, famine, and slaughter, and I have chosen the meekest maid of the three." Twelve thousand persons were thrust out of the city, but Henry refused them passage, and most of them died in the slow agonies of starvation between the English army and the walls of their town. At the end of six months, the town surrendered, but Henry, as if to blot his fair fame as a noble knight, ordered Blanchard to be put to death in cool blood. In this town of Rouen Henry built a palace and held his court. Philip the Good, Duke of Burgundy, and the French queen now made a treaty with Henry at Troyes, by which they gave him the hand of the French princess Katharine, the regency of the kingdom, and the right to succeed to the crown after the death of Charles. In the beginning of the year 1421, Henry held his Parliament at Rouen, and ordered coins to be struck, with the inscription, "Henry heir of France." But the eldest son of the king,—the Dauphin,—who was disinherited by the treaty, of course declined to acknowledge it, refused to do homage to Henry, and still kept the field with his troops.

(i) An old chronicler writes "Many hundreds died for hunger, for they had eaten all their cats, horses, hounds, rats, mice, and all that might be eaten, and oft-times the men at-arms driving out the poor people at the gates of the city, for spending of victual, our men drove them in again, and young children lay dead in the streets, hanging on the dead mothers' breasts, that pity was to see."

(ii) The Orleanists (or "Armagnacs") had invited the Duke of Burgundy to a Conference with the Dauphin, and had treacherously murdered him as he was kneeling to the French Prince. This threw the young Duke, Philip the Good, into the arms of the English, and it also brought the French queen to the English and Burgundian side.

(iii) Though by the Treaty of Troyes, Henry was the Regent, and afterwards King of France, yet the French were to be ruled according to their own laws, rights, and customs, and by a French Council. ("This disgraceful treaty had the effect of reviving the national party in France.")

10 Death and Character of Henry.—Henry had not been long back in England before he was recalled to France. He reduced the towns on the Upper Seine, and entered Paris in triumph. The French Parliament—or, as it was then called, the States-General—was summoned to Paris, where it solemnly confirmed the Treaty of

Troyes, and acknowledged Henry as the future sovereign of France. The Duke of Clarence, who had been left in command of the English forces, was attacked, defeated, and killed, along with two thousand of his followers, at Beaugé. Henry, terribly exasperated, now took the field again, and made himself master of all France north of the Loire, except Orleans. Never had he been so successful. His last triumph was the capture of Meaux, a town on the Marne, above Paris. He fell ill shortly after, of dysentery, and, after languishing for a month at the Castle of Vincennes, near Paris, died on the 31st of August 1422. He died in the very noontide of his power and fame. He too, like his father, had meditated a crusade to free Jerusalem. When the monks at his bedside read the words in one of the Psalms, "Build thou the walls of Jerusalem," he said, "Yes, if I had finished the war in France, I would have gone to Palestine and redeemed the holy city from the Saracens." He was only thirty-three. His funeral procession was the grandest that had ever been seen in France, and it expressed more than the merely conventional sorrow. From Paris to Rouen, from Rouen to Abbeville, from Abbeville to Calais, the French looked upon the solemn cavalcade with sympathy, with reverence, and with pity, for they had seen the perfect discipline which he kept up in his army, how he restrained the lawlessness and plundering of his soldiers, and how sternly he punished the tyranny and exactions of their own lords. Five hundred knights in black armour, three hundred torches, with banners and pennons innumerable, preceded the funeral car, and his burial in Westminster Abbey was the grandest and most solemn that had ever been given to an English king. Above his tomb are still to be seen hanging his saddle and his dented helmet. He was indeed the greatest monarch that had sat on the throne of England since William the Conqueror. He was frank, fearless, capable, and self-reliant. He has been described as "the noblest representative of the House of Lancaster—a Bayard, a statesman, and a fanatic, yet, above all, in everything he said or did, a king and an Englishman."

(1) At the Battle of Beaugé the French were assisted by 5000 Scottish soldiers under the Earl of Buchan and Lord Stewart of Darnley. Buchan engaged in a hand to hand fight with the Duke of Clarence (King Henry's eldest brother), killed him, and was created Constable of France.

(ii) Henry died of dysentery, which was at that time, and for centuries after, the scourge of armies. It was generally brought on by bad food, bad water, bad wine, irregular meals, wet clothes, etc.

(iii) About a year after Henry's death, his widow, Katharine of Valois, married Owen Tudor, a Welsh gentleman in a military office at Windsor. The eldest son of this union was Edmund, Earl of Richmond, whose son was Henry VII. Hence the Tudor Line.

11 Scotland.—During the imprisonment of James I of Scotland in Windsor Castle, the Duke of Albany, brother to Robert III, was regent of the kingdom. The connection between Scotland and France grew closer and stronger during this regency. Albany had died in 1419, and his son Murdoch succeeded him as Regent. Murdoch succeeded in procuring the release of James I by the payment of £40,000 for his board and education. James came back in 1424 with his head full of reforms. He had come from "the country of the Domesday Book and of feudal precision, of common law and statute law." He at once set to work on his self-allotted task of law and land reform. He appointed a Royal Commission to revise the old laws, and he ordered a survey of all lands and a valuation of all properties to be made for the purposes of regular taxation.—He arrested his cousin Albany with two of his sons, put them on their trial for treason, and executed them on the Heading Hill at Stirling. One of the persons whose lands he had interfered with was Sir Robert Graham, the uncle of the Earl of Strathearn. Graham publicly vowed vengeance against the king. James went, in the winter of 1436, to hold his Christmas revels in the Black Friars' Monastery at Perth, in spite of the warnings of a weird Highland woman, who had told him that, if he once crossed the Forth, he would never come back. One night, just before James went to bed, a body of three hundred Highlanders broke into the monastery, and made their way to the king's room. James tore up the flooring, and hid himself in a vault below. He was discovered and put to death with sixteen stabs in his body.

(a) A company of Scots, led by the Earl of Buchan, the second son of Albany, helped the French to gain their first victory over the English, at Beaugé, in 1421. As a reward for this great and unlooked-for success, the Earl of Buchan was made Constable of France (the highest military rank in the army of Old France).

(b) Something had been done in this reign for education, as is shown by the founding of the first Scottish University, the University of St. Andrews, by Bishop Wardlaw in 1411.

(lii) James I also fixed standards for the coinage, and for weights and measures. He also established butts and regular schools for practice in archery.

(iv) One of the ladies in attendance on the queen, Catherine Douglas, finding the great bolt of the chamber door gone—it had been removed by treachery—thrust her arm through the staples. But this was no help, her arm was quickly broken.

12 Social Facts—This reign saw the first beginnings of the English Navy. Fighting ships, before this time, were simply merchant-vessels filled with men at arms, but Henry now built a fleet of his own. Edward III was in the habit of hiring galleys and seamen from the Genoese, but Henry had very large ships built for him at Southampton, which was then a rising port. Commerce, which often flourishes during war, took a prosperous start during this reign, and one proof of this is the story of the "Flower of Merchants," Richard Whittington, thrice Lord Mayor of London. Whittington lent large sums to Henry V for his wars, and was also founder of Whittington College for decayed merchants. Treaties, too, were entered into for the promotion of trade with Holland, Flanders, Venice, and the Baltic towns, and thus commerce and shipbuilding greatly flourished. The serfs were gradually becoming free, and it was growing a custom for the farmer and yeoman to pay rent for their farms, instead of services. That the people were fairly prosperous, is shown by the statutes passed to stop extravagance in dress.

(i) The story of "Whittington and his Cat" is due to a mistake about an old fashioned English word, which we borrowed from Norman French. The word is *acate*, a purchase (from French *acheter*). Whittington grew rich by his *acate*, that is, by his prudent and skillful mode of purchasing. Of the Steward of an Inn of Court, Chaucer writes—

Algate he waited so in his acate
That he was aye biforn and in good state.

That is "He always attended so carefully to his purchases, that he was always in front with his accounts (had a balance at his bankers), and in perfect order."

(ii) In 1415, London was for the first time lighted with lanterns.

(iii) No labourer's wife was allowed to wear a dress the stuff of which cost over 2s a yard—about equal to 20s of our present money, and she must not wear silver mountings. This is known as "sumptuary legislation" (Lat *sumptus*, expense) and it was frequently resorted to in the luxurious days of the Roman Empire,—but at no time with success.

13 Great Men—Among the men who, during this short reign, played an important and prominent part in politics, the two most

distinguished are Archbishop Arundel and Cardinal Beaufort, bishop of Winchester Beaufort, who was half-brother, and had always been a staunch friend to Henry iv, was Chancellor of the Kingdom for several years in the reign of Henry v The man who played the most important part in ecclesiastical politics was the brave but unhappy Sir John Oldcastle, also called Lord Cobham The eldest brother of Henry v, Thomas, Duke of Clarence, took a considerable share in the French wars, but was killed upon the field of Beaugé in 1421

SHORT CHRONOLOGY AND SUMMARY OF HENRY V's REIGN

1413 Accession of Henry V	1417 Second Invasion of France
1414 (a) Meeting of Lollards in St. Giles's Fields.	(a) Many towns in Normandy taken
(b) Statutes to be based on petitions <i>without alteration</i>	(b) Oldcastle executed
1415 (a) First Invasion of France	1420 Treaty of Troyes, also called "The Great Peace"
(b) Battle of Agincourt	1421. Third Invasion of France
1416 Henry forms an alliance with the Duke of Burgundy	(The Duke of Clarence had been defeated at Beaugé)
	1422 (a) Capture of Meaux.
	(b) Death of Henry

IMPORTANT CONTEMPORARY EVENTS

1415 Portuguese take Ceuta in the north of Africa	1419 Assassination of the Duke of Burgundy by the party of the Dauphin
1418 (a) The Great Schism between the Popes terminated by the Council of Constance	1422 Death of Charles vi of France
(b) Burning of John Huss at Constance	He is succeeded by Charles vii.

CHAPTER III.

HENRY THE SIXTH (OF WINDSOR)

Born in 1421 Succeeded (at the age of 8 months) in 1422

Dethroned 1461 Died 1471 Reigned 39 years

HENRY of WINDSOR (or HENRY VI) was the only child of Henry V and Katharine of France. His grandfather by the mother's side was Charles the Mad (VI) of France, and Henry VI seems to have inherited the mental weakness of his maternal grandfather. He married, in 1446, Margaret of Anjou, the daughter of René, Duke of Bar, Count of Provence, etc. etc. They had only one child, Edward, who was murdered at Tewkesbury at the age of eighteen. Henry VI was dethroned in 1461, was restored for a short time in 1470, and died in the Tower of London in 1471.

CONTEMPORARY SOVEREIGNS

SCOTLAND JAMES I FRANCE CHARLES VII POPE MARTIN V etc.
JAMES II

1. Henry VI 1422-1461.—The new king was a baby about eight months old, but no one ventured to dispute the succession. Henry V's will was, however, set aside by Parliament, and the Privy Council became the governing body of England. The whole story of this reign is the story of a king who was, in the first part of his reign, weak through his age,—in the second part, weak from want of courage and character, and, indeed, he was just as much a minor after his so-called majority and marriage, as he had been before. The first part of his reign was filled with the disastrous wars in France, and these were hardly concluded when the civil wars called the Wars of the Roses broke out in England itself. In both of these long struggles, Henry was never anything else than a puppet in the hands of other and stronger persons. Quarrels between the chief members of the royal house, financial difficulty and debt—a

country drained of men and money, an uncertain and vacillating foreign policy, feeble administration at home, the imbecility—sometimes degenerating into idiocy—of the king, family feuds and private wars all combined to make this reign a confused scene of riot and disorder

(i) Henry Beaufort, bishop of Winchester (afterwards Cardinal Beaufort), was tutor to the young prince

(ii) When his mother married Owen Tudor, he was intrusted, at the age of three, to Dame Alice Boteler, who had authority (by warrant from Henry himself) to chastise him from time to time "as reasonablewise as the case may require"

2 The Protectorate—Henry v, on his deathbed, named the Duke of Bedford Protector of the Realm and Regent in France, while the Duke of Gloucester, in the absence of Bedford abroad, was to be Regent in England. But the Council of the Kingdom, acting on their own responsibility, set aside Gloucester, and gave him merely the empty title of "Protectorate of the Realm of England" Next to Gloucester stood Henry Beaufort, bishop of Winchester (afterwards Cardinal Beaufort)—an able statesman, and a staunch friend of the reigning dynasty Two months after the death of Henry, Charles vi, king of France, also died, so that the infant Henry of Windsor was now king of England and France But the Dauphin, who now took the title of Charles vii, contested his claim to the French throne The territory, however, in his possession was so small that the English party styled him in scorn, not King of France, but King of Bourges Henry v had left directions on his deathbed to be careful to preserve the friendship of the Duke of Burgundy, as this alliance was the only key to success in France, but Humphrey, Duke of Gloucester, strongly opposed this policy, and hence became one of the main causes of the loss of French territory He was called "the good Duke," but few have ever less deserved the name

(i) As Bedford was mostly in France, Gloucester had the chief place in England and the next place was held by Henry Beaufort, bishop of Winchester

(ii) The people of England were extremely jubilant at the idea that their young king was also king of France

(iii) Gloucester married Jacqueline of Hainault—the divorced wife of a relation of the Duke of Burgundy This lady was Duchess of Holland and owned wide lands in the Low Countries—which the Duke of Burgundy wished to rule over But this marriage produced a bitter quarrel between the two Dukes, and it was the first blow to the Burgundian Alliance

3 State of Affairs in France—The English territory in France, at the beginning of this reign, ran right down in an uninterrupted line from Calais to the Pyrenees. The chief ally of the English was the Duke of Burgundy, and, without the Burgundian alliance, success for the English army was impossible. To secure their communications, it was necessary to be in touch with Burgundy on the east, and with Brittany on the west. These communications were secured by two battles and two marriages. The Duke of Bedford married a sister of Burgundy, and the Duke of Brittany's brother married another sister. The **Battle of Crevant**, in 1423, fought by the English and Burgundians against the French and Scotch, cleared the district between Paris and Burgundy, and the **Battle of Verneuil**, in 1424, enabled the English army in and in the neighbourhood of Paris to keep up communications with the Duke of Brittany. In both of these battles, especially in the latter, the Scots contingent lost heavily in men and leaders. To stop more help coming from Scotland to the French, the English Privy Council sent James I home again, after marrying him to a daughter of one of the Beauforts. The French were now obliged to keep on the south side of the Loire, and the English were engaged in 1428 in besieging their strongest town on that river.

(i) **Crevant** is on the head waters of the Yonne, a tributary of the Seine. About 1200 knights, chiefly Scotch, were left dead upon the field.

(ii) **Verneuil** is a small town south west of Paris. Here again the English bowmen gained the day. The French army was "shattered by the English archers from behind their impenetrable wall of pointed stakes. The Scotch auxiliaries were nearly destroyed, the Earl of Buchan, Constable of France, and the Earl of Douglas were among the killed. The victory was compared in Parliament to the victory of Agincourt. The effects were nearly as great, the whole French army had to withdraw behind the Loire.

(iii) The Lady whom James I married was Joan Beaufort, daughter of the Earl of Somerset, and grand daughter of John of Gaunt. He wrote some fine poems about her.

4 Battle of the Herrings, 1428—The Earl of Suffolk was in command of the troops that were besieging the town of Orleans. The French tried to cut off a convoy of provisions for the besiegers, but were totally defeated, and as these provisions were chiefly fish,—for it was Lent,—the fight is known as the *Battle of the Herrings*. The city was on the point of surrendering in April 1429, when a strange

deliverer, utterly unlooked for by either nation, appeared upon the side of the struggling French

5 Joan of Arc¹—Joan was a peasant girl, the daughter of a small farmer of Domrémy, a village on the eastern border of France, between Champagne and Lorraine. She was "a good girl, simple and pleasant in her ways," given to solitary walks and meditation, fond of wandering in the dark pine-woods, and so gentle that the birds and beasts did not avoid her as she walked. She was kind and tender to the poor and sick, fond of her devotions, and delighting in the sound of the church bells as it echoed softly among the rocks and glades of her native valley. She was no stranger, however, to the terrors of war. Her family had more than once been obliged to gather up suddenly what they could first lay hands on, and flee to the woods, only to find their home sacked and burnt on their return. The pitying girl had often nursed the wounded and given up to them her own bed, and her whole heart was filled full of sadness for the desolate condition of the "fair realm of France." Now it was that she began to hear voices and to see visions, and, in one of them, Michael the Archangel appeared to her in a flood of light and bade her go to the help of the king. Her friends thought her mad. "I must go to the king, even if I wear my limbs to the very knees." When at last she was brought before him, she said "Gentle Dauphin, I am sent to tell you that you shall be anointed and crowned in the town of Rheims, and you shall be lieutenant of the heavenly King who is the King of France." The young girl was only seventeen,—tall, noble, and finely formed, and "able to stay from dawn to nightfall on horseback without meat or drink." They now clad her in white armour, mounted her on a white charger, and gave her a white banner embroidered with the purple lilies of France. The rough soldiers and men-at-arms beheld her with awe, thought her a saint from heaven, left off their swearing and their unholy living, and crowded to the altars of the churches on their march.

(i) "She was given armour like a knight's, and she sent for a certain sword that was laid up in a church hard by, and had a white banner made, upon which was the image of the Lord and two angels, and so set forth with a small company."

(ii) "And, before she came, two hundred English would drive five hundred French-

¹ In French *Jeanne d'Arc*. She is also called *Jeannette d'Arc* or *d'Argues*, *Jeanne la Pucelle* or (in the old Norman English) *Jehan the Maid*. Her proper name was *Jeanne Darc*, but the English, by a natural mistake, thought that the word was written *D Arc* and hence translated it "of Arc."

men before them in a blink, but, after her coming, two hundred Frenchmen would drive four hundred Englishmen before them, and the courage of the Frenchmen increased mightily."

6 Joan relieves Orleans—In the midst of a terrible thunder-storm she marched through the English lines, unperceived and unopposed, and next morning showed herself with her banner on the walls of Orleans. Fort after fort (thirteen had been erected by the besiegers) fell into her hands, and the English, believing they were fighting against invisible powers, raised the siege and marched away, for the belief in witchcraft and sorcery was then a real and living power among all classes of people. Triumph after triumph followed, and, with an army which increased with every day's march, she at length reached the gates of Rheims. "O gentle king, the pleasure of God is done!" she cried, when she saw the crown placed upon the head of Charles VII., and she passionately longed to go back to her father, to her village and her quiet home. "O that I might go and keep sheep once more with my brothers and sisters, they would be so glad to see me again!" But the French Court had found how useful she was, and refused to let her depart.

7 Fall of Joan—Her instinct and her voices spoke the truth. From this time she could not help feeling that her mission was at an end, and that she was fighting without support from a higher source. During a sally at the siege of Compiègne, she was thrown from her horse and taken prisoner. After the custom of the time in dealing with prisoners, she was sold by her captor to the Duke of Burgundy, and again by the Duke into the hands of the English. In the eyes of her enemies, her triumphs were triumphs of sorcery, and even her king must have believed her to be a witch, for, with the base ingratitude born of intense and royal selfishness, he made not the smallest attempt either to ransom or to release her. After a year's imprisonment, in ecclesiastical court, with the Bishop of Beauvais at its head, was formed to try her, she was brought before it on a charge of heresy, and condemned to die by the most painful and agonising of deaths. A great pile was raised in the market-place of Rouen, and, amid the deep and awful silence of the brutal soldiery and the unfeeling priests, the heroic soul of the poor young country girl passed away. A statue of Joan of Arc now marks the spot where she suffered death.

Joan of Arc

burnt

1431

8 Difficulties of the English—The death of Joan of Arc was no gain to the English. The new courage and hope with which she had inspired the French went on growing. The young king Henry, now a boy of ten, was brought over to France and crowned in Paris (Rheims being in the hands of the French) the very year in which Joan of Arc died, the Duke of Burgundy was made Regent of France, while Bedford contented himself with being Regent of Normandy. For Bedford saw clearly that to retain possession of the whole of France for the child-king was a sheer impossibility. In 1432, Bedford's wife, the sister of the Duke of Burgundy, died, and, the year after, he was ill-advised enough to marry Jacquetta of Luxemburg without the permission of the Duke of Burgundy, who was the lady's feudal superior. This gave rise to a quarrel between the two Dukes, and this marriage proved to be the second blow to the Burgundian Alliance. In 1435, the Congress of Arras met, and at this conference, the French offered to give up Normandy and Guienne if Henry would renounce the title of King of France. These very favourable terms were blindly and obstinately refused by the English, and, in the same year, Bedford died. Though Richard, Duke of York, was made Regent of France, he was quite incapable of filling Bedford's place. And, now that the strong personal influence of Bedford was gone, the Duke of Burgundy fell away from the English alliance, and joined the French. The war went on, but almost always to the disadvantage of the English. Normandy was conquered by the French in 1449, Bordeaux and Bayonne were lost in 1451, the brave and brilliant Talbot was defeated and killed at Châtillon in 1453, and, with him, the whole of the English possessions in France were lost, with the small single exception of Calais.

(i) "France was exhausted, but England was in little better plight. For several years the plague had been raging, and an unusually bad harvest added to the horrors of disease. Bread there was none, the people were reduced to live on pulse."

(ii) Châtillon is a small town in Poitou, south-east of Nantes.

(iii) By the fall of Talbot, "all the inheritance of Henry II and Eleanor, all the conquests of Edward III and Henry V, except Calais, were torn from the crown of England"—HALLAM.

(iv) "Had the Plantagenets succeeded, as at one time seemed likely, in uniting all France under their government, it is probable that England would never have had an independent existence. The revenues of her great proprietors would have been spent in festivities and diversions on the banks of the Seine! No man of English extraction would have risen to eminence, except by becoming in spirit and habits a Frenchman."
—MACAULAY.

9 **The End of the Hundred Years' War, 1453** — Joan of Arc's cause seemed lost in the market-place of Rouen, and her work utterly undone, but it was not so. She had, in fact, roused the sleeping national spirit of France, and, as Hallam says, "a country girl overthrew the power of England." The Duke of Bedford, as we have seen, died in 1435, the English army was constantly beaten, and province after province fell into French hands. In 1452 the people of Aquitaine, weary of French rule, sought to return under the rule of England, and the famous Lord Talbot, Earl of Shrewsbury, was sent to their aid. He captured Bordeaux, and won back much of the neighbouring country, but at his death, of all the vast English conquests in France, there remained only the Channel Islands and spot of ground on which stood the town of Calais. The English king still, however, and till much later, kept the title of King of France, but it was an empty title, and no more. Thus, to England, the only outcome of the Hundred Years' War with France was a barren title and a petty seaport.

10 **The Governing Powers** — Henry VI was married in 1445 to Margaret, daughter of René of Anjou,¹ Duke of Bar, and King of Naples, Sicily, and Jerusalem. These were mere titles, he was in fact a vassal of the king of France. In consideration of this marriage, Anjou and Maine, which were then held by the English, were given up to the French government. Margaret was a woman of beauty and spirit, and she at once took more than her share in the management of the country. Henry was a person of weak character, infirm health, feeble intellect, and retired habits. He had inherited the bodily weakness of his great-grandfather, Henry IV, and much of the imbecility of his French grandfather, Charles VI, and he had no more weight in his Council now that he had grown up than he had had as a child. In the fits of illness to which he was subject, he lost sense and memory, and the use of his limbs. The regal power was really in the hands of his wife and William de la Pole, Earl of Suffolk. It was Suffolk who arranged the marriage, who brought Margaret to England, and who gave up Anjou, and he, too, is believed to have had the Duke of Gloucester privately put to death in his own house. Six weeks after, Cardinal Beaufort died, and with him disappeared

¹ Called *Petifer* in Shakespeare's *Henry VI.*"

the chief barrier against the rising ambition of the house of York. In 1449, Normandy was lost to England, and the barons and people were furious with indignation against the minister who had allowed this rich province—this old appanage of the royal house of England—to go from them. To appease their wrath, the king banished Suffolk for five years, but his enemies intercepted him on his way to Calais, took him into a boat which contained a block, an axe, and an executioner, and there beheaded him upon the tossing waves of the English Channel. The power of Margaret's faction had utterly fallen, and that of the Duke of York was beginning to rise.

(i) "Margaret was a woman of great force of character and considerable personal attractions. Her father was the brother of Charles VII a queen, Mary of Anjou, and Henry considered that, by marrying Margaret, he would open a surer way for peace with France than by any other method."

(ii) De la Pole (Earl, then Duke, of Suffolk) was the great-grandson of William de la Pole, the rich merchant of Hull who lent money to Richard II. The discredit of the loss of Normandy was given to Suffolk, who was called a *jackanape*—a new word. The rhyme went

"This is the ape with his clog
What has tied Talbot our good dog"

(iii) Cardinal Beaufort was the Bishop of Winchester. In 1426 he received a cardinal's hat, and the Statute of *Præmunire* was suspended in his favour.

(iv) Richard, Duke of York, was the great-grandson of Edmund, Duke of York, the fifth son of Edward III.

11. Jack Cade, 1450—Terrible discontent raged at this time throughout the country. The Bishop of Chichester, who had been the agent in the cession of Anjou, was seized by the populace and torn to pieces. In Kent, the people rose against the government as one man, they were joined by the men of Surrey and of Sussex, and Jack Cade, an Irishman who had seen a good deal of fighting in the French wars, took the title of "Captain of Kent," placed himself at the head of an army of twenty thousand men, and marched upon London. They sent to the Royal Council two papers—one entitled "The Complaint," and the other "The Demand of the Commons of Kent," in which they asked for the repeal of the Statute of Labourers, the right of election without interference on the part of the great landowners and the Crown, and a better administration of the government. The Council refused to receive the complaint, and sent Sir Humphrey Stafford against them, but he was defeated and slain at Sevenoaks.

and the Kentish captain marched into London, cutting the ropes of the drawbridge with his sword as he passed. Riding through the streets up to London Stone,¹ he struck it with his sword and cried, "Now is Mortimer lord of this city" By *Mortimer*, he most probably meant the Duke of York. Lord Saye-and-Sele, the most unpopular of the royal ministers, was beheaded. And now the Council deigned to receive the complaint, most of Jack Cade's followers dispersed upon promise of pardon, but he himself was pursued and put to death by Iden, the sheriff of Kent. The complaint, it is true, was received, but quietly put under the table, and the Duke of Somerset, who had been chiefly responsible for the wars of Normandy, and had hid himself during the rising, took his place again at the head of the Royal Council table.

Jack Cade's rising was not nearly so important as that of Wat the Tiler in Richard II's reign. Jack Cade is said to have called himself John Mortimer, the Duke of York's cousin. "The which captain compelled all the gentles to arise with him and they came with a great might and a strong host to Blackheath beside Greenwich, to the number of 46,000 men and there they made a camp, ditched and staked about as it were in land of war, save only that they kept no order among them."

12 Difficulties at Home—Since the marriage of Henry VI, the queen, Margaret of Anjou, and not himself, had been the practical ruler of the country. After the death of Suffolk, the Duke of York took a more prominent share in the work of governing England. But he was opposed by the Duke of Somerset (Edmund Beaufort), the Queen, the Earl of Northumberland, and Lord Clifford. On the side of York stood the Earl of Salisbury, all the families of the Nevilles, the chief among whom was the Earl of Warwick. York had been declared heir-apparent, but, when the Prince of Wales was born, his chance of the succession had to a large extent disappeared. When, however, the king had an attack of insanity in 1454, York was chosen by the lords Protector of the Kingdom. Somerset was thrown into prison, but when, in the course of 1455, Henry recovered, the Duke of York was dismissed, Somerset was taken out of prison and restored to power. The Yorkist party flew to arms and marched upon London.

(i) Richard, Duke of York, was a son of the Earl of Cambridge, a cousin of Henry V., and great-grandson of Edward III.

(ii) York's son, the Earl of March, became Edward IV.

¹ This stone is now placed in Cannon Street under the walls of St. Dunstan's Church.

13 **The Wars of the Roses**—The story of these wars is a confused narrative of plots, battles, murders, treacheries, and executions, but the narrative possesses one remarkable peculiarity, which we must not lose sight of. These wars—though they were civil wars, and utterly shattered feudalism in England—did not affect the general property and industry of the country, they were wars between factions, the battles and disasters were limited to the persons immediately engaged in them, the trading and industrial classes took no part in them and were little affected by them, and the commerce, industry, and business of the country went on as before. The affairs of the country were managed as quietly and as regularly as if the struggle for supremacy were raging on the banks of the Seine instead of on the banks of the Thames. An old French writer, De Comines, says “The calamities and misfortunes of the war fall on the soldiers, and especially on the nobility, there are no buildings destroyed or demolished by the war, and the mischief of it falls on those who make the war.” “In a week,” says Macaulay, “the peasant was driving his team, and the esquire flying his hawk over the fields of Towton and Bosworth, as if no extraordinary event had interrupted the regular course of human life.”

14 **Yorkists and Lancastrians**—The war arose out of the struggle between the two houses of York and Lancaster, the Yorkists took the *White Rose* as their badge, the *Red Rose* being the mark of the party of Lancaster. Richard Plantagenet, Duke of York, and the grandson of that Roger Mortimer, Earl of March, who had been declared heir to the throne by Richard II, was the head of the one faction, and he claimed under two titles—the one as a descendant of Lionel, Duke of Clarence (on the mother's side), the second son, and the other as a descendant of Edmund, Duke of York, the fifth son, of Edward III. He had thus a double claim. Edmund Beaufort, Duke of Somerset, a descendant of Katherine Swynford, was—as we have seen—the head of the Lancastrian party. He was the favourite at Court, his claims to the crown were favoured by the half-imbecile Henry, but the people of England detested him for his policy in letting Normandy go. The immediate cause of these wars was the weakness of Henry's character, that they lasted so long was due to the greed and rapacity of the barons,

who, no longer able to plunder France and to sell French prisoners for large ransoms, turned their powers and appetites for destruction against each other. The Wars of the Roses lasted thirty-five years, though the actual fighting covered no more than a space of two years, and one half of the nobility of England were slain in the battles.

(i) The Lancastrians were so called because Henry VI was descended in a direct line from John of Gaunt, Duke of Lancaster, the fourth son of Edward III.

(ii) The Yorkists took their names from the fact that Edward IV was descended from Edmund, Duke of York, the fifth son of Edward III.

15 Deposition of Henry VI—York with 3000 men reached St. Albans, where Henry and Somerset lay encamped. The royal army was defeated, and Somerset was killed. This, the first Battle of St. Albans, was the first battle in the Wars of the Roses, and was fought on the 23d of May 1455. Other battles were fought at Bloreheath in 1459, and at Northampton in 1460. In the first battle the king was defeated, and the Yorkists called a Parliament at London. The Duke of York claimed the crown as the descendant of Lionel, Duke of Clarence, and the lords admitted the claim, but at length the dispute was settled by a compromise somewhat similar to that made between Stephen and Henry II in 1153. Henry VI was to reign during his life, and Richard of York was to take the title of Prince of Wales, be regent of the kingdom, and afterwards to succeed him, Edward, the only son of Henry, being thus set aside. But Queen Margaret's fierce opposition to this arrangement led to further hostilities, and war again broke out. The Duke of York was killed in the battle of Wakefield, on the last day of 1460, and his head, encircled with a paper crown, was set upon the walls of the city of York. Another battle was fought at Mortimer's Cross, in the beginning of 1461, between the young Earl of March, the eldest son of the Duke of York, and Owen Tudor (who had married Henry V's widow Katherine), in which Tudor was routed with great slaughter. Meanwhile, Queen Margaret, with her victorious army, was marching upon London, but, at St. Albans, she found her advance checked by the Earl of Warwick, and the second Battle of St. Albans took place. The Queen beat Warwick, rescued her husband, and resumed her march to London. But the Earl of March with his army was also

making his way to that city On the 3d of March 1461, he was joined by the Earl of Warwick, and both marched into London and summoned a Parliament, which declared the Earl of March King under the title of Edward IV Thus the gentle, weak-minded Henry was deposed, but, though he had reigned for so many years, he had in reality never ruled

(i) Owen Tudor was taken prisoner and March, in revenge for the death of his father, cut off his head, and placed it on the highest step of the market-cross at Haverfordwest.

(ii) The young Earl of March was welcomed by the Londoners as the "White Rose of Rouen."

(iii) Henry VI. was, though sometimes feeble in mind, "a ripe scholar and a liberal promoter of education and science" He founded Eton College, and Kings College, Cambridge The poet Gray, in his "Ode on a Distant Prospect of Eton College," mentions it as the place

"Where grateful science still adores
Her Henry's holy shade"

16 The Work of Parliament—In the year 1430 a change of the greatest importance was made in the mode of electing the members for the county, or—as they were called—knights of the shire Up to this time, they had been elected by the County Court, and all freeholders or landowners, however small, were admissible to this Court either in their own persons or by attorney (that is, by some person to represent them) The County Court was, in fact, still the folk-moot or general assembly of the people, and was really the local parliament of the county But now, in the ninth year of Henry vi's reign, the election of the knights of the shire was regulated, and the right of election strictly limited to persons who possessed freeholds worth at least forty shillings a year This had the effect of disfranchising all the small landowners called copyholders, and it also deprived villeins of all reasonable hope of ever having a vote for the county—Another change took place in 1437 Parliament, in several previous reigns, had demanded the right of appointing the Privy Council, but, in the above year, it gave up that right, and allowed the king the absolute and unchallenged right of nomination—In the last year of Henry vi's reign—that is, in 1461, Parliament made a distinct step in the direction of more power Instead of sending up its bills to the king in the form of petitions, it sent them up in the form of Statutes, which could not be altered.

This step had the important result of preventing the king's advisers from changing the wording of any statute, or from introducing into it "saving clauses," or from manipulating it in any other fashion.

(i) The Privy Council or "King's Continual Council" became "again a mere instrument in the hands of the king or the Court and was often in opposition to the Parliament or to the men by whom the Parliament was led"—STOW.

(ii) "Great landowners, who had crowds of armed retainers in their service bribed and bullied juries till the administration of the law became a farce, and on the rare occasions when this course failed, they knew how to vindicate their claims by maiming or assassinating their opponents, or by laying siege to houses, the possession of which they coveted"—GARDINER.

17 Great Men—In the early part of Henry VI's reign, much the ablest statesman was John, Duke of Bedford, the second son of Henry IV, and therefore uncle to the king. Next to him comes Cardinal Beaufort, and another prominent, though far from able man, is the next uncle, Humphrey, Duke of Gloucester. Later on, we find William de la Pole, Earl of Suffolk, the chief adviser of Queen Margaret, Richard, Duke of York, the aspirant and—for a time—the heir apparent to the throne, Richard Neville, the Earl of Salisbury—a prominent supporter of the Yorkist policy, and his son Richard Neville, the Earl of Warwick, who grew so powerful in the State that he was spoken of as the "King-maker."

18 Social Facts—Though the Members of Parliament of this time were allowed four shillings a day, and though every proper means was used to protect them in the course of their deliberations, yet it was not always safe to go to the meetings of Parliament, and it was not always easy to find candidates for the honour of sitting there. The Parliament that met at Leicester in 1425 was called the "Parliament of Bats," because the members took "great bats" or cudgels in their hands to protect themselves with.—Gunpowder and siege-cannon came into very general use during this reign,—both in the wars in France, and in the Wars of the Roses.—On the Continent, the discovery of the art of printing—an art the value of which cannot be overrated—made a strong sensation. Faust first printed the Psalter from wooden blocks in the year 1442, Gutenberg went a step further and cut types from metals in 1444, and Schaeffer went still further and cast types in moulds.

"When it was cried through the town that all men should leave their weapons,—that is, their guns and bucklers, bows and arrows, in their inns, the people took great bats in their hands, and so they went. The next day they were charged that they should leave their bats at their inns, and then they took great staves in their bosoms and sleeves, and so they went to the *Parliament of Bats* "

Bat is an English word connected with *bat*. The name is still used in cricket.

19 Scotland, 1436-1460 —James II succeeded his father at the age of six, and was crowned at Holyrood, in Edinburgh. After the coronation, his mother took him up, for greater safety, to the fortress on the high rock in the middle of the city, which goes by the name of Edinburgh Castle. The two strongest men in Scotland at this time were—Crichton, the governor of Edinburgh Castle, and Livingstone, the governor of Stirling Castle, the second great stronghold of Scotland, which had been built to overawe and check the Highlands. These two men entered upon a struggle for the wardship of the young king—an office that gave almost royal power to the man who could succeed in holding it. At length an agreement was made between them that James should reside at Stirling. Crichton and Livingstone had found themselves compelled to unite their powers, in the presence of the enormous and ever-growing strength of the house of Douglas. This house reached the zenith of its power under William, the sixth Earl. This powerful baron travelled about Scotland with an escort of a thousand knights, in more than royal splendour, and wielded within his own borders a rule which was absolute and unquestioned, and which indeed set the royal powers at defiance. He was also Duke of Touraine, and by his French possessions was much richer than any king of Scotland had ever been. Crichton and Livingstone invited William and his brother David to dine with the young king in Edinburgh Castle, had them arrested at the dinner-table, taken to the block upon the green outside, which had been made ready for them, and beheaded without formality or trial. This was in 1440.

(i) James II was crowned at Holyrood, as it was felt that Seone was a little too near to Perth and the Highlands.

(ii) The Douglas family was the best beloved in Scotland. They were genuine Scotsmen—"children of the soil," they had lived in Scotland long before the Norman barons came, they had always been ready to fight for the freedom and independence of Scotland, and Lord James Douglas had been the bosom friend of Robert Bruce, who had instructed him to carry his heart to the Holy Land. Archibald, fourth Earl of Douglas, formed an alliance with France in 1423, and was created Duke of Touraine.

(iii) The murder of the Douglasses at Edinburgh Castle was called the Black Dinner. Another murder followed. William, the eighth Earl, was invited to meet King James II at Stirling Castle, was offered a safe conduct, came to Stirling, dined with the king, and was murdered after dinner.

20 James II of Scotland—In 1452, the power of the Douglasses had again become dangerous to the Crown, and William, the eighth Earl, was asked to dinner at Stirling, and stabbed by the king himself in the course of a violent quarrel. Such was the "short and easy method" of a Scottish king with a too powerful noble. But the "Red Douglas" family, under the Earl of Angus, arose upon the ruins of the "Black". During the struggle between the Yorkists and Lancastrians, James saw there was a good chance of winning back the towns which the English still held in Scotland, and he therefore laid siege to Roxburgh. Here, for the first time in Scotland, artillery was used, and James was killed by the bursting of one of the large cannon, which had been overloaded.

Glasgow University was founded in 1451.

SHORT CHRONOLOGY AND SUMMARY OF HENRY VI'S REIGN

1422	John Duke of Bedford, Protector of the Realm.	1445	Henry marries Margaret of Anjou.
1423	Battle of Cravant.	1450	(a) Suffolk executed (b) Jack Cade's Rebellion
1424	Battle of Verneuil.	1453	(a) Death of Talbot (b) Loss of France
1424	Peace with Scotland. James I sent back.	1454	Richard, Duke of York, Protector.
1429	Siege of Orleans raised by Joan of Arc. Henry crowned at Westminster. Protectorate ceases.	1455	First Battle of St Albans. Death of Somerset.
1430	Election of Knights of the Shire restricted to freeholders of forty shillings a year.	1459	Battle of Bloreheath.
1431	(a) Joan of Arc burnt. (b) Henry VI crowned at Paris.	1460	Battle of Northampton.
1435	(a) Congress of Arras. (b) Death of Bedford. Duke of York now Regent of France.	1460	Battle of Wakefield. York killed.
		1461	(a) Battle of Mortimer's Cross. (b) Second Battle of St Albans. (c) Edward, Duke of York declared King.

CHAPTER IV

EDWARD THE FOURTH

(FIRST KING OF THE HOUSE OF YORK)

Born 1442 Succeeded (at the age of 19) in 1461 Died 1483

Reigned 22 years

EDWARD OF ROUEN was the son of Richard, Duke of York, and his wife Cecily Neville, daughter of the first Earl of Westmoreland. He was descended from Edward III. by both his parents, but his claim to the throne of England came through Lionel, Duke of Clarence, the third son of Edward III. (The rival house of Lancaster was descended from the fourth son, John of Gaunt.) Edward IV. was born at Rouen. While his father lived, his title was Earl of March, and he kept this title down to the year 1460. He married, in 1464, Elizabeth Woodville, the daughter of Lord Rivers and Jacquetta of Luxembourg, whose first husband was the Duke of Bedford, Regent of France. Their eldest son was Edward V.

CONTEMPORARY SOVEREIGNS

SCOTLAND JAMES III FRANCE LOUIS XI CASTILE FERDINAND and
ISABELLA

1 Edward IV, 1461-1483—The young king was only nineteen. He was called to the throne by the Parliament on the 4th of March 1461, and crowned on the 28th of June. In a week after his proclamation¹ as King, he was in the field against the Lancastrians, and met them at Towton, near Thedacaster, in Yorkshire. On both sides there were about 60,000 men. No quarter was to be asked or given, and if we consider the numbers engaged as well as the obstinacy of the struggle, we must call this the greatest battle that had ever been fought in England since the Battle of Hastings. On

¹ Generally uttered by heralds at the most public places—the cross, etc. of towns

the morning of Palm Sunday, the 29th of March 1461, in a dim cold dawn, in the middle of a thick blinding snowstorm, the two armies joined battle. The snowstorm won the battle for the Yorkists, for it flew in the faces of the Lancastrian bowmen, and spoilt their aim. For six hours the battle raged with desperate bravery, and then 33,000 men lay dead upon the field. It is still called in the country "Palm Sunday Field." The triumph of the Yorkists was complete, and, the day after, the axe of the executioner finished the work which the sword of the knight had begun. By this battle, the wide and fertile Plain of York fell into the hands of Edward, and this immensely increased his power in the North of England. Margaret and Henry, who had been waiting in York for the news of the fight, fled into Scotland.

(i) The wind and snow were in the faces of the Lancastrian bowmen and their arrows fell short. The Yorkists waited till their quivers were empty, marched close up to them, poured in volley after volley, and then fell upon them sword in hand.

(ii) The snow was dyed crimson as it lay. The Wharfe ran red with blood. The dead lay unburied for two or three days over a space ten miles long (up to the very gates of York) and half a mile broad.

(iii) The Parliament summoned to meet after this victory passed a Bill of Attainder against Henry VI, Margaret, and their adherents.

2 Henry VI in Prison—In 1464 the Lancastrians sustained a double defeat at Hedgely Moor and Hexham, and the queen and her son were in the greatest distress. They were set upon by highway robbers, and only escaped from them during a distribution of the plunder. They fled into the depths of the forest, but here another robber met them, when the Queen, taking courage from despair, boldly declared who she was, presented her boy, and cried, "I trust to you the son of your king." The robber guided them in safety across the border. Henry himself was retaken by the Yorkists, mounted on horseback with his feet tied to the stirrups, led thrice round the pillory, and then thrown into the Tower.

(i) The Lancastrian cause was supported chiefly by the great barons of the North. The Yorkists were favoured by the South, by the trading and industrial classes. The rough soldiers of the North were greatly feared by the Londoners for their cruelty and plundering.

(ii) "A desire for a strong government to put an end to the anarchy arose, not merely in the breast of the peasant and the labourer, but amongst stout country

gentlemen who wished to keep the lands which had descended to them from their ancestors, and amongst tradesmen who wished to enjoy in peace the profits of their industry. When, therefore, the baronage, torn by its intestine divisions, broke out into wild civil war, the wishes of all those who had no interest in the perpetuation of confusion gradually turned to the Yorkist party as affording a hope of better things' —GARDINER.

(iii) Henry was fairly well treated when in the Tower, which at that time was a palace as well as a fortress

(iv) The Commons granted Edward, in 1463, the wool tax and also tonnage and poundage for life, and thus made the king independent of Parliament.

(v) Edward made truces with Scotland and France, and treaties of peace and trade with Burgundy, Brittany, Castile, Poland, Denmark, etc.

3 The Nevilles—Richard Neville, Earl of Salisbury,—and by marriage afterwards Earl of Warwick,—had all along been the chief supporter of Edward. He was the greatest and richest nobleman in all the realm,¹ and he was in some respects more powerful than the king upon the throne. He was Lieutenant of Ireland, Captain-General of Calais, Captain of Dover (the lock and key of England), Warden of the Western and also of the Scottish Marches, Lord Chamberlain, and Lord High Steward. His brothers and relations filled other high offices. Thirty thousand retainers lived at his different castles, "when he came to London, he held such a house that six oxen were eaten at a breakfast," and when he came to Parliament, he came accompanied by six hundred armed men in his own livery. "He could raise armies at his call from his own earldoms." Edward had secretly married Dame Elizabeth Grey (born Woodville),—the widow of Sir John Grey, an adherent of the Lancastrian party,—whose beauty had overcome him when she was pleading to him for the grant of the forfeited estates of her husband. In 1464 he publicly avowed their marriage. The court was now filled with Woodvilles, and court society was loud with the quarrels and jealousies, the intrigues and counterplots, of the Woodvilles and the Nevilles.

(i) Wherever Warwick went, he kept a kind of "open house," and all inns and taverns were at his service. "Every tavern was full of his meat, for who that had any acquaintance in that house, he should have had as much sodden and roast as he might carry upon a long dagger." His income amounted to 80,000 crowns a year.

(ii) Warwick's two daughters were the greatest heiresses in England. Isabel, the elder, was married to the Duke of Clarence (brother of Edward IV.), a Yorkist, Anne

¹ Kingdom. *Realm* is the Norman French form of *royaume*.

was betrothed to Edward, Prince of Wales (the son of Henry VI), a Lancastrian. Thus Warwick thought he had secured his power on both sides.

(iii) George Neville, Warwick's youngest brother, was Chancellor and Archbishop of York, his third brother, John of Montague, had received the properties and titles of the Percies, and was now Earl of Northumberland.

4. The Revolt of the Nevilles—The profusion with which offices, honours, and estates were showered upon the new family offended the Earl of Warwick, who had hitherto enjoyed a monopoly of these bounties. Warwick's dissatisfaction was shared by his son-in-law, the Duke of Clarence, the king's own brother, and Warwick, the "King-maker" as he was called, now resolved to place Clarence upon the throne. Taking advantage of a rising of the peasants in Yorkshire, Clarence and Warwick joined this body. After a few skirmishes and battles, they were obliged to flee to France. Here Warwick met his old enemy, Queen Margaret, became reconciled with her, and married his daughter Anne to the young Prince Edward. But his chances of the crown were thus lost to the "false, fleeting, perjured Clarence,"¹ who therefore in his secret mind resolved to support his brother and to spoil the plans of Warwick. On the 13th of September 1470, Warwick and Clarence landed at Dartmouth, and, as their army marched into the country, the standard of the King-maker was joined by enormous numbers. King Edward, "who was never concerned at anything, but still followed his hunting," was taken by surprise, and obliged to mount and flee for his life to France, and with him his younger brother Richard, Duke of Gloucester. King Henry was brought out of the Tower, where he "had not been so cleanly kept as should seem such a prince," arrayed in fresh royal robes, and led to the palace of Westminster. Edward found shelter with his brother-in-law, the Duke of Burgundy, but, on the 14th of March 1471, he suddenly returned with a small force of two thousand men, landing at Ravenspur, the very place where Henry of Bolingbroke had landed on a like errand and under similar circumstances, eighty years before. But, though his force was small, he had a new weapon called a "hand-gun," which was destined to turn the bow entirely out of use.

(i) Warwick always leant to the king of France. Edward preferred an alliance with the Duke of Burgundy, who was even more powerful than France, and whose

Court was the most magnificent in Europe Edward therefore married, in 1468, his sister Margaret to Charles the Bold, the son of Philip the Good, Duke of Burgundy

(ii) Among the odder turns of events in this reign, Edward was himself for a short time a prisoner in Middleham Castle, Yorkshire, in the hands of Warwick's brother, the Archbishop of York. Thus "England was in the extraordinary condition of having two kings, both captive in different places, under the charge of one earl!"

5 Death of the King-maker—Clarence now deserted Warwick and returned to the side of his brother, and on Easter morning the two hostile armies met on Barnet Heath, near London. The battle began by the king's orders between four and five in the morning, in a dense mist. The left wing of the Yorkists was beaten, and broke and fled, but the king knew nothing of it, and fought on for six hours, until Warwick and seven thousand Lancastrians lay dead upon the field. Thus ended the Battle of Barnet, "a medley of mistake, carnage, and treachery." The King-maker was dead, and the bodies of him and his brother were sent to St Paul's to be shown to the people. The very day of this battle (April 14) Queen Margaret landed at Weymouth, and on Easter Monday she heard the news of her defeat. "She, like a woman all dismayed," says an old writer, "for fear fell to the ground," but, by the advice of her friends, she met the king in battle once more—on the 4th of May at Tewkesbury. It was a terrible and bloody fight, the queen's army was utterly defeated, and she herself captured. Richard, Duke of Gloucester, the youngest brother of the king, and afterwards Richard III, first won distinction for himself in this battle. The queen's son, poor young Prince Edward, when hard pressed in the fight, uttered a cry for mercy, which the king answered by a blow in the face with his iron gauntlet, while his brothers fell upon him and stabbed him. The queen remained in captivity for five years, until she was ransomed by the king of France, and King Henry VI died in the Tower—murdered, some said, by the hands of this Richard, Duke of Gloucester—With the Battle of Tewkesbury (1471) ended the Wars of the Roses. The great barons had almost all been killed, the great houses—especially those of the North—were rooted out, and more than half the nobility perished by the sword or by the axe. The cry of King Edward in battle had always been "Kill the nobles and spare the commons!"

(i) Margaret at first made for the lowest bridge over the Severn—the bridge at Gloucester but that town belonged to the Yorkists She therefore had to march further up the river—to Tewkesbury

(ii) Richard Duke of Gloucester, afterwards Richard III, led the attack at Tewkesbury

(iii) When Edward fled to Flanders, he was so ill provided that he “was forced to give the master of the ship for his passage a gown lined with martene

(iv) When the king fled to Flanders, the queen took refuge in the Broad Sanctuary at Westminster, where her son, Edward V, was born

The right of protection if a person in danger seizes the horns of the altar is as old as Moses
Every cathedral and abbey and many churches in England had the right of Sanctuary
At first this belonged only to the altar then to the church itself and then to the buildings within a limit round the church which was marked off by clear boundaries

6 Edward's Government—In this reign Parliament hardly ever met, and the king's power was almost absolute The grants of the Commons had made him independent of Parliament, and, besides, the enormous wealth which the confiscations¹ of the Lancastrian estates poured into the royal treasury made the king extremely rich, and he never needed to go to them for money At one time Edward held nearly one-fifth of the land of all England Then he was also a great merchant, and traded in tin and wool and cloth with the ports of the Mediterranean The money granted for a war with France, which was never carried out, was quietly put into his own pockets, and served to swell his already enormous wealth A fourth method of raising money was by means of forced loans, which were termed with grave humour “benevolences” The merchants of the city of London and the wealthy men of the kingdom were summoned before him, and each was requested or “invited” to make him a present or benevolence But the worst of all his ways of money-making was his interference with the coin of the realm “King Edward,” says an old writer, “changed the coin of England, by which he had great getting,”—that is, he decreed that the old Noble, which was only worth six shillings and eightpence, should be called a Réal and pass for ten shillings The three-and-fourpence of difference he put into his own treasury—And thus the rule of Parliament, and its management of the business of the country, were almost entirely suspended in the reign of Edward IV

Parliament sat for forty two days in 1478 This Parliament condemned the Duke of Clarence to death for treason He was put to death in the Tower but how, is not known

¹ Putting into the *fecus* or treasury

7 **The Invasion of France**—After the Battle of Tewkesbury there was peace for three years in England, and Edward was growing tired of this repose. A war with France was always popular in England, and the king resolved to revive the old claims on the French crown. On the 20th of June 1475, he set sail from Sandwich with 1500 men-at-arms, 15,000 bowmen, and a great number of foot-soldiers and artillery. Large "benevolences" had been presented to the king, but, to the intense disgust of the knights and soldiers, the invasion ended before it had well begun. Louis XI, king of France, one of the most crafty diplomatists that ever lived, had not the smallest wish or intention to fight, and, by the Treaty of Pecquigny,¹ Edward was to receive an annual pension of ^{Treaty of Pecquigny} seventy thousand crowns, and to return quietly home. A ^{1475.} bridge was thrown across the Somme, and the two kings meeting midway, shook hands through a wooden grating, and swore to observe the terms of the treaty. The disappointed soldiery made up for their loss of plunder in France by pillaging their own countrymen at home, but the king himself accompanied the judges to try the offenders, and hanged without mercy every man who was apprehended for the smallest theft.

(1) Louis XI. not only gave Edward a yearly pension, he also paid all expenses of the expedition, gave 50,000 crowns as a ransom for the Dowager Queen Margaret, and bribed heavily the chief members of the King's Council.

(2) Edward was now not only able to "live off his own," but he could keep around him a large guard of stout yeomen.

8 **Death and Character of Edward**.—Clarence, Edward's brother, was summoned before his peers² on a charge of sorcery and high treason, and Edward himself appeared against him. He was tried, found guilty, and sentenced to be beheaded, but, about ten days after, it was announced that he had died in the Tower. An old story, which has little foundation, has always circulated that he was offered a choice of deaths, and chose to be drowned in a butt of malmsey,³ but this may have been only one way of putting the statement that his wine was poisoned. Edward, who had grown enormously stout, and feeble both in mind and body, fell into a paroxysm of rage upon hearing that the king of France had deter-

¹ Near Amiens.

² Equals. In this case the Lords.

³ A rare and expensive French wine.

mined to break one part of his contract. He at once gave orders to prepare for war, but a few days after he fell ill, and died on the 9th of April 1483—Edward was a man of the most consummate political ability, but he was pitiless, cold-blooded, and treacherous. As a young man, he stood by and saw old grey-headed nobles hurried to the block and beheaded before his own eyes. His manners were thoroughly good-humoured and full of personal charm, but when his anger was roused, he was fierce and unrelenting. Fearless and without care, it required a great emergency to rouse him, but, when he was roused, he showed an iron will and an inflexible determination. His whole life, however, was tainted with the love of gold, of blood, and of vice.

(i) Edward was taller by the head than any man in his court. He told Philip de Comines, the French historian, that he had been in nine battles, and that he had fought on foot in eight of them.

(ii) "His personal beauty, his success in war, the familiarity of his manners, his splendid household, and the share which he allowed himself to take in the commercial enterprise of the day, endeared Edward to the burgher class."—FRANK BRIGHT

(iii) "He sat and judged on his own King's Bench, and talked familiarly with the people."

The Earl of Warwick is generally known as the 'Last of the Barons,'—that is he was the last of those powerful feudal chiefs whose bands of personal retainers amounted to small standing armies and whose revenues exceeded those of royalty itself.

The Wars of the Roses utterly broke down feudalism and one half of the nobles had lost their lives in the battles. Edward is said to have put to death fourteen hundred persons of high rank.

LIST OF BATTLES IN THE WARS OF THE ROSES

1 First Battle of St Albans, Hertfordshire (Somerset killed),	1455	7 Battle of Towton, Yorkshire (Lancastrians defeated),	1461
2 Blore Heath, Staffordshire (Duke of York victorious),	1459	8 Hedgely Moor, Northumberland (Queen defeated),	1463
3 Northampton (Earl of Warwick victorious),	1460	9 Hexham, Northumberland (Henry made prisoner),	1464
4 Wakefield Green (Duke of York is killed),	1460	10 Barnet (Earl of Warwick killed),	1471
5 Mortimer's Cross, Herefordshire (Edward victorious),	1461	11 Tewkesbury (Queen taken prisoner and her son Prince Edward put to death),	1471
6 Second Battle of St Albans (Queen victorious),	1461	12 Bosworth Field, Leicester (Richard III killed),	1485

9 Great Men—By far the most prominent man in the reign of Edward IV was the Earl of Warwick, "the King-maker" It is on his good or bad relations with Edward that the whole course of events during the reign turns Edmund, Duke of Somerset, the chief supporter of Queen Margaret and her policy, who was beheaded after the Battle of Tewkesbury, had much to do with the policy of this reign The Duke of Clarence, Edward's younger brother, cannot count for very much, but, if a son had not been born to the king, he might have ascended the throne Earl Rivers, the father of the queen, and a great friend of William Caxton, the first English printer, is also worthy of notice But the "rising man" at the close of the reign was beyond all doubt Richard, Duke of Gloucester

10 Social Facts—In spite of the Civil Wars, and notwithstanding the pestilence which raged in 1479, commerce increased greatly during the reign of Edward IV This was due chiefly to the good order Edward kept in the country and the stern justice he meted out The king was himself a merchant, and personally popular with the merchant class "The commerce of England," says Creasy, "grew to a far greater height than it had ever before attained, and the general condition of the trading classes was remarkably prosperous" In and by the Wars of the Roses, the turbulent barons had been killed off, those who remained were too poor to disturb the peace of the country, the industrial and commercial classes were thoroughly protected and even encouraged, and, henceforth, the kings of England were to be the friends and patrons of the Commons, and the enemies of the feudal barons Ships as large as of 900 tons burden were built In the City of London, the guilds of Iron-mongers, Merchant Taylors, Carpenters, Cloth-workers and others, obtained royal charters and became corporate bodies But by far the most striking social event in this reign was the introduction into England of the art of printing by William Caxton in 1477 This event did more for England than all the battles of kings or the statutes of parliaments The first book printed in this country was "The Dietes and Sayings of the Philosophers"

(1) Postal communication was established between London and Edinburgh by changes of horsemen every twenty miles, and a letter thus reached the capital of Scotland in four days This "regular post" had been established by Richard, Duke

of Gloucester (afterwards Richard III), when he was Governor of the North, and was making war on Scotland

(ii) William Caxton was born in 1422, "in Kent in the Weald". He was a mercer. In 1470 he entered the service of Margaret, Duchess of Burgundy, and sister of Edward IV. At Ghent, in 1474, he produced the first English book that ever was printed. It is a collection of the "Stories of Troy". The second English book ever printed was the "Games and Playe of the Chesse". Both these were printed abroad. Edward IV and Richard III were hearty patrons of Caxton's, and Earl Rivers and Tiptoft, Earl of Worcester, were his friends, and also translated books for his press.

SHORT CHRONOLOGY AND SUMMARY OF EDWARD IV'S REIGN

1461. (a) Edward IV succeeds (b) Battle of Towton.	1471 (a) Edward lands at Ravenspur (b) Battle of Barnet (c) Battle of Tewkesbury (d) Death of Henry VI.
1464. (a) Battle of Hedgely Moor (b) Battle of Hexham. (c) Edward marries Elizabeth Woodville	1475 (a) No Parliament (for eight years—except one sitting of forty two days in 1478) (b) Treaty of Picquigny
1468 No Parliament (for about four years)	
1470 (a) Warwick flees to France (b) Lands at Dartmouth. (c) Edward flees to Flanders (d) Restoration of Henry VI	1476 The Sweating Sickness
	1483 Death of Edward IV

IMPORTANT CONTEMPORARY EVENTS

1467 Death of Philip the Good, Duke of Burgundy. Charles the Bold succeeds	1479 Ferdinand King of Arragon. Union of Castille and Arragon.
1477 Charles the Bold defeated and killed at Nancy, in the east of France	
1478 Lorenzo the Magnificent ruler of Florence	1483 (a) Martin Luther born. (b) Louis XI. of France dies. (c) Charles VIII. succeeds

CHAPTER V

EDWARD THE FIFTH

(OF WESTMINSTER)

Born 1470 Succeeded (at the age of 12) in April 1483 Deposed
June 1483 Died 1483 Reigned 2 months

EDWARD V OF WESTMINSTER was born in the Sanctuary at Westminster on the 8d of November 1470—the year his father fled to Flanders to ask help from his brother in law, the Duke of Burgundy. He was the elder son of Edward IV and his Queen (Elizabeth Woodville). Edward V never “ascended the throne—was never crowned,” he was only brought to London, and there became the centre of plots. He died, probably murdered, in 1483, at the age of twelve. (He would have been thirteen had he lived till November.)

CONTEMPORARY SOVEREIGNS

SCOTLAND JAMES III FRANCE CHARLES VIII SPAIN FERDINAND
and ISABELLA

1 Edward V, April 9—June 25, 1483 —This reign is the short reign of a crownless king. It lasted only eleven weeks and one day, and the ceremony of coronation never took place. At the time of his father's death, the young prince, then only twelve years old, was residing in Ludlow Castle, on the Marches of Wales, where Lord Rivers, his maternal uncle, one of the most accomplished men of the time, and a great friend of Caxton the printer, was directing his education. On his road to London he was met by Richard, Duke of Gloucester, and Henry Stafford, Duke of Buckingham, the chiefs of the party opposed to Lord Rivers and the Woodvilles, and conducted by them to London. All his mother's friends and those belonging to the Woodville party were arrested, and the poor little boy “wept and

was nothing content, but it boot¹ not" Lord Rivers and his friends were conveyed to Pontefract Castle, and there, a few weeks after, without any charge brought against them, or any form of trial whatever, they were put to death at the block. The queen, upon hearing the news of her son's falling into Gloucester's hands, fled with her second son and her five daughters to the sanctuary at Westminster, Edward v was lodged in the Tower, but in the palace and not in the prison, and the Duke of Gloucester was proclaimed Lord Protector of the Realm. Buckingham was made Constable of England, all the royal castles were put into his hands, and power to call out the whole of the people in arms was also granted him.

The young Prince was met at Stony Stratford, one of the places on the Roman road called Watling Street.

2 Gloucester's Action—Lord Hastings was the brother-in-law of Warwick the King-maker, had been a favourite of Edward iv, and was now a member of the Great Council which managed the affairs of the kingdom during the minority of the king. June 26th had been fixed as the day of coronation of the young king, but, before the day came, Gloucester contrived to put Hastings out of the way, and to come to a complete understanding with Buckingham. The fact is, that Lord Hastings was faithful to Edward v, and therefore Gloucester, who probably all along had his eye on the crown, wanted him out of the way. Cardinal Bouchier, the Archbishop of Canterbury, the great-uncle of the king, was sent to the queen in Westminster sanctuary to persuade her to allow the young Duke of York to be with his brother. Gloucester had now both boys in his possession, his enemies were beheaded, and the way seemed clear.

(i) Probably the English nation, dreading a long minority, and the plots and quarrels certain to go on between rival factions, were not sorry to see a capable man like Richard take forcible possession of the powers of the realm.

(ii) "On the 13th, Gloucester appeared at a council in the Tower 'with a wonderful sour countenance. The Protector, after a little while, asked what they were worthy to suffer who compassed his destruction, to which Hastings replied, 'Certainly, my lord, if they have so heinously done, they be worthy heinous punishment. 'What, quoth the Protector, 'thou servest me I ween, with *ifs* and *ans*,² I tell thee they *have* so done, and that I will make good on thy body, traitor. And therewith,

¹ That is "it was of no use." The verb *boot* is a form of an older word *betan* to make *bet* or good and we have *bet* in the word *better* and *boot* in *booty* *bootless* etc.

² An old fashioned word for *supposing*.

as in a great rage, he clapped his fist upon the board a great rap, at which token given, one cried 'Treason' without the chamber. Therewith a door clapped, and in came rushing men in harness,¹ as many as the chamber might hold. And anon the Protector said to the Lord Hastings, 'I arrest thee traitor!' 'What! me, my lord?' quoth he. 'Yes, thee, traitor!' quoth the Protector. Then they were all quickly bestowed in divers chambers, except the Lord Chamberlain,² whom the Protector bade speed and shrieve him³ apace. 'For, by St Paul,' quoth he, 'I will not to dinner till I see thy head off.' It booteth him not to ask why, but heryly he took a priest at adventure,⁴ and made a short shrift, for a longer would not be suffered,—the Protector made so much haste to dinner, which he might not go to till this were done for saving of his oath. So was he brought forth into the green beside the chapel within the Tower, and his head laid down upon a long log of lumber and there stricken off.⁵

3 Deposition of Edward V—Gloucester's next step was to employ Buckingham, who was his tool, to induce the citizens of London to get up a petition, entreating him to accept the crown, and on the 22d of June, Dr Ralph Shaw, the brother of the Lord Mayor of London, preached a sermon at St Paul's Cross, in which he maintained that these children were illegitimate on the ground of a previous contract of Edward iv with Lady Eleanor Butler, and that the Lord Protector was the rightful heir to the crown. Two days after, a number of Lords and members of the House of Commons waited on the duke at Baynard's Castle, where he was lodging, and desired him to take upon himself "the office and title of king," the arrangements for Edward's coronation were made use of for that of his uncle, and Richard, with his wife, Anne Neville, was crowned at Westminster on the 6th of July 1483.

(i) The Lords and others called their petition to Richard "The Choice and Pryer of the Lords Spiritual and Temporal and the Commons of England," and in this document they desired that he would take the kingship, "the children of Edward iv being illegitimate, those of the Duke of Clarence attainted, and the blood of Richard, Duke of York, remaining uncorrupt only in the person of Richard the Protector, Duke of Gloucester."

(ii) If the Duke of Clarence, who was older than Richard, had not been attainted, his son, the Earl of Warwick, would have been heir to the throne.

4. Scotland—James III (1460-1488) succeeded his father in 1460, but the management of affairs was in the hands of Bishop Kennedy of St Andrews, and of the king's mother, Mary, the

¹ Armour

² Lord Hastings

³ Confess himself to a priest

⁴ The first priest that happened to be in the way

⁵ From Sir Thomas More's *History of Richard III*

daughter of the Duke of Gueldres But Mary of Gueldres died in 1463, and Kennedy in 1466, and the chief power fell into the hands of a strong and rising family, called the *Boyd's* Lord Boyd seized the young king at Linlithgow, carried him off to Edinburgh Castle, had his own eldest son created Earl of Arran, and married him to the king's sister Mary—The overlordship of the Western Isles was still in the hands of the kings of Norway, but Scotland held them on condition of paying a yearly rent For many years this rent had not been paid, and now an arrangement was come to, by which the young king should marry Margaret, the daughter of King Christian, her dowry being the arrears of rent and a sum of sixty thousand florins, for which sum the Orkney and Shetland Isles were to be placed as pledges in the hands of the king of Scotland This sum was never paid, and thus these islands became, in 1469, a part of the Scottish kingdom, and have remained so ever since

5 James III of Scotland.—The king quarrelled with his brother Alexander, Duke of Albany, who fled first to France, and afterwards to the English court Edward IV took his side, and made an agreement with him that he should marry his daughter, the Lady Cecily, and that Albany should be placed on the throne of Scotland. In the year 1482, James raised an army to invade England, and marched at the head of it as far as Lauder Bridge in Berwickshire The Scottish nobles, with whom James had never been popular, on account of his liking for favourites of low birth, saw their opportunity, and met together to devise a plan for getting rid of these favourites The most detested of them was Robert Cochrane, who had once been a stone-mason. No one seemed able to carry out any suggestion, when Archibald, Earl of Angus, rose in the assembly and said "Never fear, I'll bell the cat."¹ His allusion was to the old fable of the cat and the mice At that moment Cochrane himself knocked at the door, he was admitted, seized, insulted, and arrested, and the same afternoon he and the other favourites were hanged over Lauder Bridge.—The king continued to grow more and more unpopular, and the lords formed a confederacy, collected an army, declared James deposed, and put James the Prince of Scotland at their head, the king also called together an army, and the two forces

¹ Hence his nickname of *Archie Bell-the Cat*

met at Sauchieburn, in Stirlingshire The day was going against the king, he turned and fled, he was thrown from his horse and carried to a mill near Bannockburn, where the dagger of an assassin in the disguise of a priest put an end to his life in June 1488

(i) The Duke of Albany, James III's brother, had promised Edward IV, if he were placed by him on the throne of Scotland, to hold his kingdom as a fief of England, to cede the town of Berwick, and to marry one of Edward's daughters Richard, Duke of Gloucester, along with Albany, led an army as far as Edinburgh, where Albany became reconciled with James

(ii) Berwick was actually ceded, and has been an English possession ever since.

SHORT CHRONOLOGY AND SUMMARY OF EDWARD V's REIGN

1483 May 4, Gloucester made Protector	June 25 (a) Gloucester is offered the Crown.
June 13, Hastings beheaded.	
June 16 Richard Duke of York the king's younger brother, sent to join him in the Tower	(b) Deposition of Edward V

CHAPTER VI

RICHARD THE THIRD

(OF GLOUCESTER)

Born 1450 Succeeded (at the age of 32) 1483 Died 1485
Reigned 2 Years

RICHARD OF GLOUCESTER was the third son of Richard, Duke of York, who fell in the Battle of Wakefield in 1460. This Duke of York was descended from Lionel, Duke of Clarence—the second son of Edward III. Lionel's daughter, Philippa, married Edmund Mortimer, Earl of March, and the Duke of York was Philippa's great-grandson. In 1473, Richard married Anne Neville, the widow of the murdered Prince of Wales, the son of Henry VI. (It was said that Richard murdered him with his own hand.) There was only one son of the marriage—Edward, Prince of Wales, who died in 1484.

CONTEMPORARY SOVEREIGNS

SCOTLAND JAMES III

FRANCE CHARLES VIII

1 **Richard III.**—Richard had married Anne Neville, the widow of the very Prince Edward (the son of Henry VI) whom he had himself killed after the Battle of Tewkesbury. Edward's brother Clarence, who wished to keep for himself all the Warwick estates, had hid her in his house and forced her to take the disguise of a kitchen-maid, but Richard diligently sought her out, married her, and shared with her the vast properties of the Warwick family. After their coronation, the king and queen made a royal progress through the kingdom, and were everywhere loyally received, and to please the people of the north, with whom Richard was very popular, he and his queen were crowned a second time in York Minster.

2 The Two Princes—Richard's throne could hardly be deemed secure so long as Edward and his brother were alive, and, though nothing is certainly known of their fate, there is little doubt that Richard had them put out of the way. They were placed in the Tower, and they were never seen again.

(i) The story goes—but it is a story which was set afloat by Richard's enemies—that Brackenbury, the constable of the Tower, refused to put the young princes to death, and that Richard commanded him to hand over the keys and his commission for twenty-four hours, to Sir James Tyrrel. During the twenty-four hours, Tyrrel's groom, John Dighton, and Miles Forrest, another servant, went up to the princes' bed chamber, while Tyrrel waited below, and murdered the two children by smothering them in their beds, and they buried their bodies at the foot of the stairs.

(ii) One seeming proof of the truth of this story, is the fact that, in 1674, in the reign of Charles II., nearly two hundred years after, the bones of two young children were found under the staircase of the White Tower. The "Chronicle of the Grey Friars of London," writing of the first year of Richard III., mentions their death in this simple way: "And the two sons of King Edward were put to silence."

(iii) The princes' own relations and many of the great nobles did not believe that they were dead. Many asserted that they had escaped from the Tower and were in hiding. This widespread belief was one of the causes of two attempts on the part of pretenders in the course of Henry VII.'s reign.

* I have heard by credible report of such as were secret with his chamberers that after this abominable deed Richard never had quiet in his mind. He never thought himself sure. When he went abroad his eyes whirled about, his body privily fenced, his hand ever on his dagger, his countenance and manner like one always ready to strike again. He took ill rest at night lay long waking and musing, wearied with care and watch, he rather slumbered than slept. Troubled with fearful dreams suddenly sometimes he started up, leapt out of his bed and ran about the chamber.—Sir THOMAS MORE. (See also Shakespeare's Richard III. Act v. 2, 11.)

3 Revolt of Buckingham.—Buckingham had been the chief friend and supporter of King Richard, and Richard was in the habit of loading with benefits all who served him. But a quarrel arose between the two. Buckingham joined the party of the malcontents and raised the standard of rebellion in Wales, but, soon after, having been taken prisoner, he was put to death at the block without form of trial. The rallying centre of this malcontent party was Henry Tudor, Earl of Richmond, who had fled from England, and had taken refuge in Brittany. He was the only descendant of the old House of Lancaster, and indeed belonged to a royal line by both sides. On the side of his father, he was the grandson of Katharine, the widow of Henry V., who had married the Welsh gentleman Owen Tudor, on the side of his mother, he was a great-grandson, through the line of the Beauforts, of John of Gaunt. Richmond had embarked in his

fleet to join Buckingham with a small army, but a storm arose, and drove him back upon the coast of France. Richard now made a progress through the west of England, where the Lancastrian cause was strongest, and in the course of his progress reprimanded and punished many of the insurgents, but, with the far-seeing policy of a new ruler, took care to pardon many men.

(i) Buckingham sought refuge with an old retainer of his own in Shropshire, Ralph Banister, who gave him up to the Sheriff of the County. The price set on Buckingham's head was £1000, or an estate worth £100 a year, and this sum was probably equal in value to £12,000 at the present day.

(ii) Among those who suffered was William Collingbourne, who had been Sheriff of Wiltshire, and who had made and circulated a political rhyme upon the king and his advisers. The rhyme was this:

"The Cat, the Rat, and Lovel the Dog,
Rule all England under the Hog."¹

But even so poor a rhyme was looked upon as a possible incentive to treason.

4 Richard's Government—Richard to some extent owed his position as sovereign to Parliament, and he accordingly hastened to restore to it the old power and the old liberties which had lain dormant during the reign of Edward IV. Parliament was at once summoned, and though it sat for only one session during his short reign, a good deal of hard work was accomplished, and great improvements in legislation were introduced. The practice of extorting money by "benevolences" was declared illegal, many estates which had been forfeited were restored, free trade in books between England and the Continent was established, and the bondsmen upon the Crown domains were set free.

(i) Several good laws were passed by Richard's Parliament: (a) one against the collection of benevolences; (b) another against the keeping of retainers (so as to weaken the power of the nobles); (c) a third, called the "Statute of Uses," to forbid secret transfers of land; (d) a fourth, called the "Statute of Fines," which secured the title of landowners. By his statute a fine paid to the court, with proper proclamation, was, after five years, a bar to all future claims. This act, at a time when so much land had, in the last three reigns, passed from hand to hand by forfeiture or attainder, was of the greatest value and importance. Fifteen acts in all were passed, and all of great value.

¹ The Cat was *Catesby*, Chancellor of the Exchequer; the Rat was *Patcliffe*, an important Yorkist; Lovel was the son of an old Lancastrian; and the Hog typifies Richard himself, one of his cognisances being a white boar. Gray in the Bard thus alludes to Richard with reference to his badge, as the murderer of Prince Edward on the field of Tewkesbury—

"The bristled Boar in infant gore
Wallows beneath the thorny shade."

(ii) This Parliament of Richard III was "the most meritorious national council for protecting the liberty of the subject, and putting down abuses in the administration of justice, which had sat since the time of Edward I"—LORD CAMPBELL

5 The Coming of Henry Tudor—If Richard had contented himself with improving the laws of the country, and earning a wide popularity by his just rule, he would probably have kept his seat on the throne to the end of his life. But he had felt insecure so long as Edward V and his brother lived, the boy's disappearance and the suspicion that he was responsible for it, are said to have united the whole nation against him. Morton, bishop of Ely, seeing that even the Yorkists were falling away from Richard, advised Tudor to unite both parties in his favour by a promise to marry Elizabeth, the eldest daughter of Edward IV. This policy at once drew off friends from Richard, and made others lukewarm in his cause. Tudor set out with only three thousand Normans at his back, but then the Lancastrian party in England was very strong and closely knit together. He landed at Milford Haven on the 7th of August 1485, and marched in an easterly direction through Wales.

(i) Richard issued a proclamation against the Earl of Richmond, in which he called him "one Harry Tydder of base descent." He was certainly of base descent, as the Beauforts, the children of John of Gaunt and Katherine Swynford, were only legitimised by order of Richard II.

(ii) On the death of his only child, Edward, Prince of Wales (who died the very day twelvemonth of the accession of Edward V.), Richard had nominated his nephew John de la Pole, the Earl of Lincoln, as his heir. Lincoln's father, the Duke of Suffolk, had married Elizabeth, sister of Edward IV and Richard III.

6 Battle of Bosworth.—Richard had repaired to Nottingham as a central point, and when the news of his rival's landing reached him, he marched westward, until the two armies met on the 22d of August, near the heart of England, in the neighbourhood of Market Bosworth in Leicestershire. Richard had twice the number of men, but never was so great and decisive a battle fought with forces so very small. Before the battle began John Howard, Duke of Norfolk, received a warning against joining the king, a warning couched in a very rude rhyme

"Jocky of Norfolk, be not too bold,
For Dickon thy master is bought and sold"

And bought and sold Richard indeed was, for Lord Stanley had been induced to come over to Henry's side. During the battle he

deserted and fought against his king, and to add to the difficulty, the forces of the Earl of Northumberland would not stir a foot. Richard rode at the head of his troops on a white horse, in full armour, and with the crown fixed upon his helmet. Hardly had the battle begun when he saw it was lost, but, with the tenacity of his race and the courage of despair, he cut his way through the enemy up to his rival, overthrew Henry Tudor's standard, and was at last killed, "fighting manfully in the thickest press of his enemies." His helmet was knocked off his head, the crown had rolled away under a hawthorn bush, Lord Stanley picked it up and placed it, amid the cheers of the assembled knights, upon the head of Richmond. Richard's body, stripped of his armour, "was trussed behind a pursuivant of arms, like a hog or a calf, the head and the arms hanging on one side of the horse, and the legs on the other side, and all besprinkled with mire and blood, was brought to the Greyfriars' Church at Leicester." And this was the last of Richard III, the last of the Plantagenets.

(i) Henry Tudor of Richmond was crowned on a low hill, which is called "Crown Hill" to this day. He adopted as his badge the "Crown in the May bush."

(ii) "On that dreary moor of Bosworth ended the royalty of the great House of Anjou."

7 Character of Richard.—Richard was most probably a great statesman, who in an age of violence had been too ready to use violent means. He was only thirty-four when he died, and there can be no doubt that he would have done much for the establishment of law and order in the country had he lived longer. He was not a "blood-supper and child-killer," as the Tudor party called him, but neither did he scruple to put out of the way any man who opposed his plans. He was the eleventh of the twelve children of Richard, Duke of York.

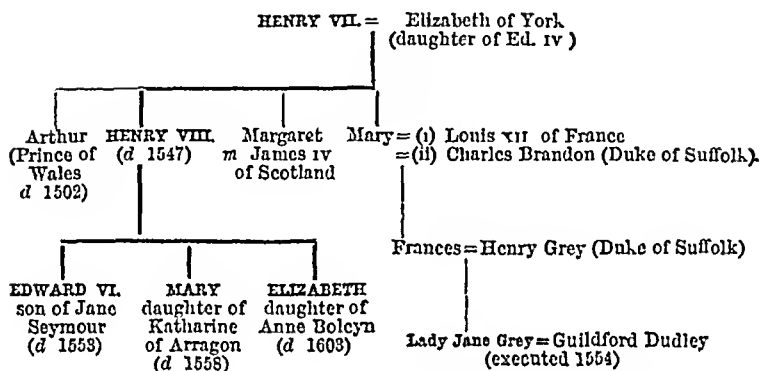
SHORT CHRONOLOGY AND SUMMARY OF RICHARD III.'S REIGN

1483	(a) July Disappearance of the two young Princes	1484.	(a) Parliament passes an Act abolishing benevolences.
	(b) Buckingham conspires with the Earl of Richmond and others against Richard.		(b) Edward, Prince of Wales, Richard's only son, dies.
	(c) Buckingham in open rebellion in Wales. Is beheaded.	1485	(a) Queen Anne, Richard's wife, dies.
			(b) Landing of Richmond.
			(c) Battle of Bosworth. Death of Richard.

BOOK VI

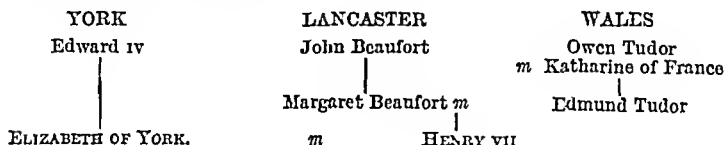
THE HOUSE OF TUDOR

GENEALOGY OF THE HOUSE OF TUDOR



(i) Henry Grey was a great-grandson of Elizabeth Woodville, by her first husband, Sir John Grey

(ii) The new connection between the Houses of York, Lancaster, and Wales, is shown in the following diagram —



CHAPTER I

HENRY THE SEVENTH

(HENRY TUDOR OF RICHMOND)

Born 1456 Succeeded (at the age of 29) in 1485 Died 1509
Reigned 24 years

HENRY TUDOR was born at Pembroke Castle in 1456. He was the son of Edmund Tudor, Earl of Richmond, who married Margaret Beaufort, the great-grand-daughter of John of Gaunt, by his third wife Catherine Svyynford. Edmund Tudor was the son of a Welsh gentleman, Owen Tudor, who married Katharine of France, the widow of Henry 5. Thus he was of royal blood on both sides, but the Beaufort line was really an illegitimate branch of the Lancaster family, though it had been legitimised by a Parliament of Richard 3's reign. Henry VII married Elizabeth of York—the eldest daughter of Edward 4. They had four children: Arthur, who died before his father, Margaret, who married James 5 of Scotland, Henry VIII, and Mary, who married (i) Louis XII of France, and (ii) Charles Brandon, Duke of Suffolk.

The Earl of Richmond took his title from *Richmond in Yorkshire*. The Richmond on the Thames was called *Sheen* and received its later name from Henry VII.

CONTEMPORARY SOVEREIGNS

SCOTLAND	FRANCE	SPAIN
JAMES III to 1488	CHARLES VIII to 1498	ISABELLA AND
JAMES IV	LOUIS XII	FERDINAND

1 Henry VII, 1485-1509 — Henry Tudor had been a fugitive or an exile from his native land from the time when he was only five years of age. He passed most of his life in Brittany or in France, and his patient ability and subtle power of scheming gradually raised him to be regarded as the head of the Lancastrian party, both at home and abroad. He did not carry out his promise to marry the Princess Elizabeth of York, until Parliament, whose power was then amply

acknowledged, settled the crown in his own person and his heirs, "and in none other" This last clause was added to exclude the Earl of Henry VII. Warwick, a son of the Duke of Clarence, and any other person who, by blood relationship, might be supposed to have a prior and sounder claim to the throne of England 1486 [Henry accordingly married Elizabeth on the 18th of January 1486 All through his reign he showed himself a patient, wary diplomatist, always content to wait for the success that was sure to come at last But though the king had married a Yorkist, he hated the Yorkist party, and had made up his mind to put them down and to keep them down in every part of the country He revoked all grants of land that had been made to Yorkists in the course of the last thirty years, and thus put himself in possession of an enormous amount of property in different parts of the country

one skilled in political skill or the art of negotiation

(i) Henry VII.'s claim to the throne was like that of Henry IV., and rested on three grounds (i) right of birth (ii) conquest, and (iii) the choice or approval of Parliament. The first of these claims was not very sound, as two children of a nearer line were then alive—one, Edward Plantagenet, Earl of Warwick, the eldest son of the Duke of Clarence, who was older than Richard III.

(ii) The checks on the authority of the Crown at the accession of Henry VII. were

- (1) The king could levy no new tax without the leave of Parliament
- (2) No law could be made without the assent of Parliament
- (3) No man could be thrown into prison without a legal warrant specifying clearly his offence
- (4) A person accused on a criminal charge must be tried in a Public Court and by a jury of twelve men. If they are unanimous, there is no appeal
- (5) An officer of the Crown, violating the liberty of a subject, can be sued for damages, and cannot plead even the direct order of the king

2 The Era of Personal Rule—A new era in English history begins with this reign—the Era of Personal Rule. The change which Louis XI. had introduced into France, which Ferdinand of Arragon was introducing into Spain, that change Henry Tudor also introduced into England. Everywhere in Western Europe, courts and royal cabinets were absorbing the power of chartered institutions and customary laws. Such changes were the natural outcome of the decay of the feudal system. The forces which, in the hands of the great barons and territorial magnates, tended to local quarrels, civil war, and national disintegration, were destined to be replaced by the growing power of the Crown, which was the agent for unifying the

country, protecting industry, and consolidating the commercial and intellectual progress of the people

3 Lambert Simnel.—In the spring of 1487 appeared in Ireland a good-looking boy of ten, whom his friends declared to be Edward Plantagenet, the Earl of Warwick, escaped from confinement in the Tower. The Yorkists had always been popular in Ireland, Fitzgerald, Earl of Kildare, was governor at the time, he at once abjured Henry, and had this young man crowned at Dublin by the archbishop, under the title of Edward VI. Margaret, the widow of the Duke of Burgundy and sister of Edward IV and Richard III, furnished Lord Lovel and the Earl of Lincoln¹ with money and troops to support him, and they sailed over to England with "a great multitude of Irishmen and Almain²s." They were met by Henry Tudor at Stoke-upon-Trent, on the 16th of June, and utterly overthrown. Lincoln and other leaders fell on the field, Lovel fled, the pretended Warwick, who was in reality one Lambert Simnel, the son of a joiner in Oxford, was taken prisoner and, with politic and contemptuous mercy, made a turnspit in Henry's kitchen. "He turned a broach that had worn a crown," and in course of time, by steady conduct and good behaviour, he was so fortunate as to rise to be royal falconer.

Lambert
Simnel
1487

(i) The Fitzgeralds had been promoted by Richard, Duke of York, and the House of York had always been very popular with the English of Ireland.

(ii) Lambert Simnel was a mere tool in the hands of the Yorkists. For (a) if they had taken the field in favour of the true Edward, Earl of Warwick, Henry would at once have put him to death, and (b) it became Henry's interest to keep the true Edward alive, and thus to prove the person put forward a mere impostor. Had they succeeded, it was easy to put Simnel out of the way.

(iii) Henry publicly exhibited Warwick to the people in a procession from the Tower to St. Paul's, and he also allowed him to live at his Palace of Sheen.

4. Invasion of France, 1492.—The Duke of Brittany, who had been the staunch friend and preserver of Henry, was in 1487 threatened with invasion by the king of France, Charles VIII, and he naturally looked for help to Henry, who, indeed, owed to him his life. The king went to Parliament for supplies of money, which were voted. He also extorted large "benevolences" from rich

¹ This was John de la Pole, a son of Edward IV's sister and a nephew of Richard III, who had been declared by him his heir.

² *Germanis*. The French call Germany *Allemagne*.

persons, but he had no real intention of making war. All he wanted was to make money. At last, in 1492, he took a "Siege of Boulogne" formidable army over to Calais, laid siege to Boulogne for 1492 a few days, made peace for a large sum of money, and came back again. He had been bought off by the king of France with a purse of £149,000. Thus, in addition to the grant by Parliament, he put in his pocket the gift of France.

5 Henry makes Money—Henry had three chief aims in life, all of which seemed to help each other. These were to put down the Yorkists and the rich barons—that is, to destroy the feudal system, and concentrate power in the Crown, to rule as much as possible without Parliament, and to make money, by fair means or by foul. He had discovered even more ways of making money than Edward IV. Subsidies granted for the support of war he put into his own pocket, he revived the odious system of "benevolences," he laid claim to lands which had long been in the possession of others, and he punished the nobles with fine and forfeiture, whenever the smallest opening or opportunity presented itself. Cardinal Morton, whom he had made Archbishop of Canterbury, his chancellor and favourite minister, assisted him in all these *evil undertakings*. It was he who, in the plenitude of his cleverness, invented a dilemma which went by the name of "Morton's fork." Rich and poor nobles were equally plundered, for, he said, those who lived plainly and frugally had evidently saved money, and those who lived extravagantly and on a grand scale were as evidently wealthy, and could therefore afford to help the king. He made the transfer and sale of land easy, and thus the wealthy merchants and middle-class people bought up many estates from the impoverished nobles. The king carried his money-making schemes so far, that one historian has called him "a royal swindler," but this good came out of them, that the old spirit of war and violence was thoroughly put down.

"If Cardinal Morton was informed that a nobleman or gentleman lived in good style, with a great show of gold and silver plate, and a great array of servants and retainers, he would send for him and say quietly to him, 'I hear you are a very rich man. I am delighted to know that you are so wealthy. It is quite plain you can afford to spare for the king a large benevolence.' But if the nobleman lived in an obscure fashion, with few servants and no display, the other prong of the fork was

then in Parliament with two

presented to him 'My Lord, you are, I see, a most thrifty and careful person, you must have saved up a great deal of property you are certainly able to give the king a good benevolence "'

✓6 **The Invention of Gunpowder**—Another remarkable circumstance also gave him supreme power over his nobles, and this was the introduction of artillery "The invention of gunpowder," says a great historian, "ruined feudalism." The reason is plain. It was useless for the knight or baron to dress himself in heavy armour when a bullet could go through it, and, with a gun in his hand, the weak man is just as powerful for wounds or death as the strongest. The only artillery-train in the kingdom belonged to the king, and the greatest baron, with the largest following, was powerless against the heavy guns of the royal artillery.—The king also amassed large treasures by the dowries paid to his sons on their marriage, and much of this and other money he invested in portable property—that is, in jewels and precious stones. This was for the purpose of being able to carry his wealth easily, if the worst should happen and he should have to flee from his kingdom.

(1) "The introduction of gunpowder ruined feudalism. Without artillery, an army (collected by a baron) was now helpless, and the one train of artillery in the kingdom lay at the disposal of the king.—GREEN

(1) "His desire for getting jewels scarcely knew any bounds, and on these alone he spent £110,000."

7 **Retainers**—The Statute of Liveries and the statutes against Maintenance were enforced with the most strenuous rigour. One amusing example is given by Lord Bacon in his "History of Henry the Seventh." The king was entertained for several days in the most sumptuous and magnificent manner, by the Lancastrian Earl of Oxford at his castle at Henningham. When the king was taking his leave of the Earl the castle servants stood in their livery coats and badges, ranged in long rows on both sides, making a lane for the king. The king started a little and said, "By my faith, my Lord, I thank you much for your good cheer, but I may not endure to have my laws broken in my sight. My attorney must speak with you." And the attorney-general did speak with the Earl, and the result was a fine of £10,000.—Thus the king by his exactions at once enriched himself on the one hand, and broke the power of the nobles

on the other, and this enormous wealth of his enabled him to rule without the help of Parliament, which met as seldom as it could

(i) Maintenance did not mean supporting or feeding these retainers, but *maintaining* or supporting their quarrels and their causes in the courts of law. The retainers of a nobleman wore his badge or his livery

Livery (French *livrer*, to give) consisted generally of a cloak and cape given every year

(ii) Not more than thirty of the old nobles were left alive from the Wars of the Roses, and Henry was determined that no one of them should accumulate any formidable power

8 Perkin Warbeck—In the year 1492 there again appeared in Ireland, where the house of York had always been very popular, a new claimant to the throne, who styled himself Richard Plantagenet, Duke of York. He gave himself out as the second son of Edward IV, whose life, he said, had been spared when his brother, Edward V was put to death. According to the Tudor party, he was a person called Perkin Warbeck of Tournay. He landed in Cork from a small merchant vessel which had sailed from Lisbon, and the mayor and townsfolk went mad with enthusiasm about him. He then crossed over to Flanders, where the Duchess Margaret received him as her nephew with open arms, and bestowed upon him the name of the "White Rose of England." At her court he remained for three years, and Henry was all this while in a state of constant anxiety about him and his claims. Many of the Yorkists went over to

Perkin Warbeck 1492 Flanders to pry their court to him and to join him, but others sent as their agent Sir Robert Clifford, who, for a sum of £500 out of Henry's private purse, betrayed his cause and gave up the names of his friends and adherents. Among these names was that of Sir William Stanley, who had saved the life and crowned the head of Henry Tudor upon the field of Bosworth. All that Stanley had said was, that if this young man should prove to be the real Richard Plantagenet, he would not fight against him. But this was quite enough for Henry, who was glad to find a pretext for forfeiting the enormous wealth and the vast estates even of an old friend. In 1496 "Richard Plantagenet" paid a visit to Scotland, where James IV received him with the greatest cordiality, styled him Richard IV, and gave him in marriage a kinswoman of his own, the beautiful Lady Katherine Gordon. In the following year, Richard landed in Cornwall, where he knew the people to be disaffected to

the king, and, being joined by large numbers of the people, he seized the strong position of St Michael's Mount, and pushed forward into Somersetshire. At Taunton he heard that Henry was approaching with a strong army, and, taking fright, he fled on horseback into the New Forest, where he took sanctuary at the abbey of Beaulieu.¹ Here he was induced to surrender, on condition that his life should be spared, and his wife became an attendant in the court of the queen. He himself was placed in the Tower, along with the young Earl of Warwick, who was so ignorant that he hardly knew one bird or beast from another, but in 1499 both of them were accused of high treason, tried, and executed. Warwick beheaded within the Tower, and 1499 Warbeck hanged and quartered at Tyburn.² "One fierce and strong wave," says an old chronicler, "swallowed both their lives."

Warwick
and
Warbeck
executed

(i) Henry requested the Archduke Philip to turn Warbeck out of Flanders. On his refusal, Henry expelled all Flemings from England, and removed the market for English wool from Antwerp to Calais.

(ii) By the execution and forfeiture of Stanley, Henry put in his pocket £40,000, in addition to very large estates.

(iii) The people of Cornwall were disaffected because they had been asked to pay a tax for the protection of the North of England against the attacks of the Scotch. Their view was that each county ought to pay its own war expenses.

(iv) Ferdinand of Arragon, the father of Katharine, had refused to allow his daughter to marry Prince Arthur, "as long as a doubtful drop of royal blood remained in England." Hence the eagerness to get rid of the Earl of Warwick.

9 Two Important Marriages—In 1501 the king married his eldest son Arthur, who was only fifteen, to Catalina, the youngest daughter of Ferdinand of Arragon and Isabella of Spain, but generally known in England as Katharine of Arragon. Arthur had received his name in memory of the fact that the king believed himself to be descended from the great British chieftain, King Arthur, but the descent is, of course, extremely doubtful. Arthur died five months after his marriage, and the king was now in great terror lest he should have to return the dowry of the princess, which was very large, amounting to two hundred thousand gold crowns. But Henry devised a cunning

Arthur
marries
Katharine
of Arragon
1501

¹ Pronounced *Beaulieu*.

² Tyburn is the burn or brook called *Tye* which flowed into the Serpentine through a district now covered with houses and called *Tyburnia*.

plan to escape this very unpleasant necessity. He obtained a dispensation from the Pope to legalise the union with the wife of a brother, and betrothed the youthful widow to his second son Henry (afterwards Henry VIII), who was at the time only eleven years of age. This was the second base crime in connection with this Spanish marriage, for Ferdinand of Arragon had said plainly that he would not listen to any marriage-contract so long as the Earl of Warwick lived, and so this poor child was put out of the way. Long after, Katharine sorrowed over this marriage more than any one, and often remembered with anguish that it had been "begun in blood"—The second marriage was that of the king's eldest daughter Margaret with James IV of Scotland, in 1502. These two marriages were, as far as their consequences are considered, the most important events of Henry's reign. From the Spanish marriage sprang great changes both in home and in foreign policy, from the Scottish marriage came the union of the two kingdoms under one crown, and the cessation of war between them.

Margaret
marries
James IV
1502

Henry VIII. did not marry Katharine of Arragon till after he had succeeded to the throne

10 Empson and Dudley—During the last thirteen years of Henry's reign Parliament was, as we have seen, called together only once. Henry had far more effective and far more easy means of raising the money he so dearly loved. His chief instruments in this perpetual quest were two lawyers, Richard Empson and Edmund Dudley (barons of the exchequer), who applied all the ingenuity which their knowledge of the law and their natural talent gave them to extort fines and lands from the wealthy subjects of the king. One of their means was the employment of false witnesses, who were called "promoters," and who for a small sum of money would swear anything they were told, and very few nobles or rich merchants escaped being ground at one time or another in "Empson and Dudley's mills." These two men suggested also the alteration of the monetary standard, the compromising of offences for money, the revival of old laws, so that fines might be exacted for their transgression, and the systematic bribery of the judges, so that they should always give their decisions in favour of the king and the king's pocket. *1506 settled by mutual agreement and conclusion*

(i) Empson and Dudley were called by the people the "Kings horse leeches and skin sherrers"

(ii) They had other modes of extorting money, as, (a) Large sums had to be paid for "Charters of Pardon" (b) Jurymen were heavily fined for bringing in erroneous verdicts, (c) Spies, called "promoters" or "quest-mongers" were set to find out full offences, and either demand "hush money" or large fines, (d) Corporations and Trade guilds had to pay enormous sums for the maintenance of their ancient rights

11 The Death of Henry VII—On the 21st of April 1509, Henry died at his palace of Sheen, which he called after his old title, Richmond, and which he had rebuilt with great splendour. He was buried in Westminster Abbey, in the magnificent chapel which he had himself erected. He died after amassing nearly two Death of
Henry VII.
1509 millions of money, and earning "the great hatred of his people," and his character is written with sufficient plainness and unmistakable breadth in the many base acts of his reign.

(i) The exact sum left by Henry VII was £1,600,000, a sum in the purchasing power of that period more than equal to £18,000,000.

(ii) Sir Thomas More, in the Introductory Discourse to his "Utopia," has the following sarcastic reference to the grasping avarice of Henry VII "All the counsellors agree and consent together that no abundance of gold can be sufficient for a prince who has to keep and maintain an army furthermore that a king, though he would, can do nothing unjustly For all that men have, yea, and the men themselves also, are all his And every man hath so much of his own, as the kings gentleness hath-not taken from him."

12 Scotland.—James IV of Scotland supported the claims of Perkin Warbeck, received him at his court with great favour, treated him as Richard, Duke of York, and gave him in marriage Lady Katharine Gordon, a kinswoman of his own. But Henry VII immediately proceeded to countermine Warbeck, and at last succeeded in marrying his eldest daughter, Margaret Tudor, to James in 1502. From this marriage sprang the union of the two crowns of England and Scotland—one hundred and one years after—in the person of James I.—The lordship of the Isles, the Western Isles or Hebrides of Scotland, was finally broken up in 1504 by the capture of Black Donald (Donald Dhu), a descendant of the last Lord of the Isles—Under James IV Scotland first appeared as a naval power, and vast sums of money were spent upon the building of ships

One naval captain, Andrew Barton, who had received letters of marque from the king empowering him to fight against the Portuguese, was not very careful in his

selection of ships, and captured English vessels whenever he had a chance. He was attacked by the English in time of truce, killed in the action, and his ship, the *Leon*, was taken to England, where it became the second ship in the English navy. The first was the *Great Harry*, a vessel of one thousand tons, which at that time was regarded as a ship of the most colossal proportions. It cost £14,000.

13 The Work of Parliament—It was the policy of Henry VII to be as independent of Parliament as he could, and to make monarchy as absolute in England as the temper of the English people would permit him to make it. And this his great wealth enabled him to do. His first Parliament granted him the duties on tonnage and poundage for life, he revoked, on his own sole authority, all the grants of Crown land, that had been made since 1454, and he put in his own pocket the property of the wealthiest among the Yorkists, whom he had ruined by the easy and ready means of bills of attainder. He was thus by far the richest prince in Christendom, and he had no need to apply to Parliament for money. Throughout his reign of twenty-four years, Parliament was called together only seven times, and, during the last thirteen years of the reign, only once. But adventurer as he was, he was too prudent a man to try to do without Parliament altogether. He induced Parliament in 1492 to countenance his extortion of benevolences, and, in 1495, a very sensible statute was passed which gave security of property to the subject who rendered obedience to the king on the throne for the time being. During most of his reign, Henry's letters-patent were just as valid as Acts of Parliament.

(i) In 1401, Henry VI summoned fifty three temporal Peers to Parliament, in 1485, Henry VII could summon only twenty nine. Such havoc had the wars of the Roses and the headsmen's axe made among the barons.

(ii) It is with Henry VII that Modern History begins, as opposed to Medieval History.

(iii) With Henry VII also begins anew the struggle between the Crown and Parliament as to who shall have the keeping of the national purse.

(iv) The Ordinary Council of the King was revived under the name of the *Star Chamber*¹ in 1486, and all state offences were punished by it. It could inflict any punishment except death. This Chamber abolished Maintenance, and this was one of the last and heaviest blows at the sinking power of feudalism. It also strictly enforced the Statute of Liveries, by which each nobleman had to pay £5 a month for every retainer who wore his badge.

¹ The *Star Chamber* was a room in the royal palace at Westminster set apart for the safe custody of stars a Hebrew word for bonds left there by the Jewish merchants who had otherwise no footing in law. This was first done in William the Conqueror's time.

(1) "As far as legislation was concerned, parliaments became mere instruments in the hands of Henry VII. The House of Lords had been thinned away by the recent massacres and executions, and the House of Commons was filled with men who had neither the power nor the will to be other than his humble servants"—GARDINER

14. Great Men—The most distinguished men during the reign of Henry VII were Archbishop Morton, Sir William Stanley, and Sir Edward Poynings. Morton carried out, with unflinching determination and steady consistency, the twofold policy of Henry—to amass money, and to weaken the nobles of England. Sir William Stanley gained the crown on the field of Bosworth for Henry, who rewarded him with forfeiture and execution. It is to Poynings that we owe the famous statute for the government of Ireland Poynings
Law
1494 called Poynings' Law. By this law all acts of the English Parliament were to be of force in Ireland also, and the Irish Parliament was prohibited from passing or putting in force any law which had not received the sanction of the English Privy Council.

✓ **15 Social Facts**—The reign of Henry VII is remarkable for some of the greatest events that ever happened in modern history—events which widened immensely the knowledge, the minds, and the imagination of men, and which opened up to them new worlds both within and without. The New World of the two Americas was discovered by Columbus and others, the road to India by sea was found out, and the dangers—from pirates in the Mediterranean, and robbers on land—of the overland route to the East were in this way avoided. The Mediterranean was no longer the centre of the known world, but a new Mediterranean opened before the commerce of the nations which is now called the Atlantic Ocean. The centre of commercial gravity passed from the Mediterranean nations to those that lay nearest to the Atlantic, and Spain, Portugal, Holland, and England began to show themselves the chief trading nations of the world. These were events that filled the minds of men with perpetual wonder. But a greater event, or, rather, an intellectual revolution, took place also in this reign. The Revival of Learning began in England. Constantinople had been the home of learning and literature and the capital of Greek and Latin scholarship up to the year 1453. In that year, this city was besieged and taken by the Ottoman Turks. The scholars fled, taking with them their books

and manuscripts—more precious than gold and jewels, and passed on to Italy, Germany, and France. It was in Italy that they obtained the warmest welcome and the most noble hospitality, and, from Italy, the New Learning passed on to England. An event greater than either—though it did not come so close to the minds and business of ordinary men—occurred also in this reign. This was the discovery of the Planetary System by the great astronomer Copernicus in 1507. This discovery, indeed, opened up infinite spaces and worlds to the mind of man. These great events—the discovery of America, the discovery of the new route by the Cape of Good Hope to India, the Revival of Learning,—accompanied by the inventions of printing and gunpowder,—form a record such as no other reign can show, and stand out as unmistakable landmarks of the border-line between Medieval and Modern Europe.

“While England covered before the horrors of civil war or slumbered beneath the apathetic rule of Henry VII. the world around her was passing through changes more momentous than any it had witnessed since the victory of Christianity and the fall of the Roman Empire. Its physical bounds were suddenly enlarged. The discoveries of Copernicus revealed to man the secret of the universe. The daring of the Portuguese mariners doubled the Cape of Good Hope and anchored their merchant fleets in the harbours of India. Columbus crossed the untraversed ocean to add a New World to the Old. Sebastian Cabot, starting from the port of Bristol threaded his way among the icebergs of Labrador. This sudden contact with new lands, new faiths, new races of man quickened the slumbering intelligence of Europe into a strange curiosity.”—GREEN.

(i) Columbus (Christopher Colon, 1451-1506) discovered Hispaniola, in the West Indies, in 1492.

(ii) John and Sebastian Cabot, Italians in the pay of Henry VII., in a Bristol ship with Bristol sailors, discovered the mainland of America in 1497.

(iii) Constantinople was taken by the Turks in 1453. Their treatment of merchants on the overland route to India was marked by every kind of cruelty, robbery, and extortion. Hence the strong desire of merchants to find a road to India and the East by sea, and it was this motive that impelled Columbus and Vasco da Gama on their voyages. The one hoped to reach India by the west, the other by the east. Vasco da Gama doubled the Cape and reached India by sea in 1497.

(iv) The first man to teach Greek at Oxford was Thomas Grocy, who learned it at Florence.

(v) The population of England was in this reign about 3,000,000. The two cities of London and Westminster had about 60,000 inhabitants between them, and they were joined by a country road lined with trees. This road—now called the Strand—is at the present day the most crowded thoroughfare in Europe. (There are now, in England, thirty towns with a population of more than 60,000, twenty-six of these have more than 100,000, and, of these again, twelve have more than 200,000.)

(vi) “The reign of Henry VII. gave the English middle classes what they most needed, the protection of a firm government.”—GARDNER.

SHORT CHRONOLOGY AND SUMMARY OF HENRY VII'S REIGN

1485	Henry VII is crowned in London		the Seventh, discovers the mainland of America
1486	Henry marries Elizabeth of York (Union of the Red and White Roses)	1499	Execution of Warbeck and Earl of Warwick.
1487	Lambert Simnel	1501	Marriage of Arthur Prince of Wales, with Katharine of Arragon
1489	Henry sends an army to Brittany	1502	(a) Arthur dies
1492	Perkin Warbeck.		(b) Henry, Prince of Wales, is engaged to Katharine
	Henry besieges Boulogne.		(c) Margaret, eldest daughter of Henry VII, marries James IV of Scotland
1494.	Poyning's Law in Ireland.		(d) Treaty of Perpetual Peace with Scotland
1495	Statute of Liveries		
1496	The Magnus Intercursus ¹	1509	Death of Henry VII.
1497	Sebastian Cabot, sent out by Henry		

IMPORTANT CONTEMPORARY EVENTS

1492	(a) Moors driven out of Granada		of Good Hope, and discovers the sea road to India.
	(b) Discovery of the New World by Columbus	1498	Savonarola burnt at Florence
	(c) Jews expelled from France, Spain, and Portugal	1499	East coast of North America discovered by Amerigo Vespucci, who gives his name to the whole Continent
1497	(a) Sebastian Cabot discovers the mainland of America.		
	(b) Vasco da Gama doubles the Cape		

¹ The "Magnus Intercursus" was a great commercial treaty made by Henry VII with the Duke of Burgundy (who was then ruler of Flanders) by which the Duke undertook to encourage English imports—wool, etc., and also to banish Perkin Warbeck from his dominions.

ENGLAND IN THE FIFTEENTH CENTURY

1 **The Renaissance**—The Fifteenth Century was an age of new light, and of an almost sudden awakening of the minds of men to the most astonishing facts. It has been sometimes called the "Age of Discovery of the World and of Man." It discovered the world, for the voyages of Columbus, Vasco da Gama, Cabot, and others, revealed to the astonished eyes and ears of Europeans the existence of the New World, of Southern Africa and of numerous islands in the ocean. It discovered man to himself—and the nature of his mind, for it introduced the New Learning, and brought into Schools and Colleges the noble and polished literature of the Greeks and Romans. The poetry and philosophy of the Greeks, which had lain hidden for many centuries, was now eagerly read by every one who had leisure, and scholarship took deep root in the Universities of Oxford and Cambridge.

2 **Trade**—The fifteenth century saw great improvements and developments in the commerce of England. The seas had been made safe and cleared of pirates, and the demand for English wool and other English products had been steadily growing. The merchants of England had been rising in rank and importance during the century, and some of them were wealthier and more powerful than many of the members of the old nobility. The De la Poles of Hull, who lent very large sums to Edward III, intermarried with the royal family and Henry Picard, a wine-merchant of London, gave a dinner in his own house, after the battle of Poitiers, to four kings, Edward III, King John of France, King David of Scotland, and the King of Cyprus. London itself was fast becoming one of the great ports of the world. Its chief exports were wool, hides, leather, and saddlery, its chief imports, wines, silks, spices, dried fruits, and metals. Treaties of commerce had been made with Brittany, the Castiles, Portugal, Flanders, Florence, and with the great Hansa League of the Baltic cities. "Below Bridge"—which was the great port of London—might be seen lying the long galleys of Florence and of Venice, laden with the products of Mediterranean countries, the heavy luggers of Flanders, the strong-built ships of the Baltic Sea.

(i) The *Guilds* or *Craft-guilds* were at their height of power in the middle of this century, and soon after declined. They promoted the objects of their associations, trained young men saw to the quality of the work done, kept prices from rising too high or sinking too low, and secured their members against poverty and distress.

(ii) The *Hansa League* was a league of merchants, first started in London, to protect their commerce. The other centres were *Wisby*, *Novgorod*, and *Bruges*, and their mutual defence was chiefly confined to the North of Europe. In London, it took the name of the *Steelyard*. It had at one time fleets and soldiers of its own.

3 Agriculture—Villenage had been slowly dying out during this century, and the position of labourers slowly improved. Farmers and yeomen were also better off, as their "customs" or "customary rents" were no longer paid in kind—that is, in labour, or in shares of the corn or cattle on the farm,—but were paid in fixed sums of money, and thus the farmers worked with greater diligence and in better heart, for they felt that they themselves would be the chief gainers by their own hard labour.

4. Architecture—The style of building most characteristic of the fifteenth century is that known as the *perpendicular*. This style was first made popular by *William of Wykeham* (1324-1404), but it became still more widely prevalent after his death. *King's College Chapel*, in Cambridge, *Eton College* (built by *Henry VI*), *Henry VII's Chapel* at Westminster are among the best specimens of this style in England. As all the military power of the country was, at the end of the century, in the hands of the king, and as the nobles were obliged to keep the peace and obey the law, it was no longer necessary for the barons to build castles. Large manor-houses, of wood and stone, or of wood and brick, were built instead, and these were bravely decorated both within and without. In towns, the houses were built very close to each other, and with wide overhanging roofs—as is still the case in Switzerland and Germany—for the purpose of shade, as the climate of England was much hotter four hundred years ago than it is now.

5 Manners and Customs—Sumptuary laws still prevailed, and the kinds and quantities of food, the material and shape were prescribed by law. Whether a man might wear cloth of gold, or velvet, or satin, or cloth, or canvas, how long his coat might be, whether it could be stuffed or not,—all this depended on express enactments. People, even the wealthier classes, rose at four or five in the morning, breakfasted at seven, dined at ten, and supped at four in the afternoon. But the interiors, and especially the floors, of most of the houses were very dirty. "The floors," says *Erasmus*, the great Dutch scholar, "are mostly of clay, and strewed with rushes. Fresh rushes are periodically laid over them, but the old ones remain as an

abomination for perhaps twenty years together. The chief form of hospitality was, as it still is, the giving of dinners, and a Venetian traveller tells us that a dinner would "last four hours or more."

6 Printing—The first printing-press in England was erected in Westminster, in the year 1474, by William Caxton, but, before that time, books had been reproduced by hand upon parchment or thick tough paper. The class of copyists were called *Scriveners*. These men wrote a strong, plain, clear, and regular hand, which was quite as easy to read as print, and which was a great deal more pleasant to the eye. The first English book produced by Caxton was the "Game and Playe of the Chess," the first English book printed in England was "the Dictes and Sayings of Philosophers." The Church saw plainly how important and influential the "new art" was destined to become, and it obliged every printer to obtain a licence for the publication of every book he printed—a system which continued in England down to the time of Milton, in the seventeenth century.

(i) The word *Scrivener* came later to be applied to lawyers who drew contracts and agreements, and, later still, to money lenders. John Milton's father was a *Scrivener* of the former kind.

(ii) One of Milton's great prose works is a pamphlet on licensing books, which he called "*Areopagitica*—A Speech on the Liberty of Unlicensed Printing."

7 The English Language—The accepted English for book and literary purposes had, in the fourteenth century, been the East Midland Dialect—that kind of English which Chaucer and his followers used. But the influence of other local dialects had by no means disappeared, and Caxton himself was sometimes puzzled which word to use. What is called a "classical English" did not exist: that could only come after the labour and the polishing of great writers like Shakespeare, Bacon, and Milton. But the English of the fifteenth century differed from the English of the nineteenth in three respects: (i) It contained more genuine English words, and fewer Latin words. (ii) It still retained remnants of the old inflections. (iii) Its spelling was extremely different. And, speaking generally, we may say that there were larger changes, and more rapid changes, made during this century, in the organism of the English language, than ever took place either before or since. For it was a period of immense intellectual stir, and the writers of books and the preachers of sermons were not restrained or limited by any settled standards of style or anything like a fixed or established book-English. They spoke and wrote at their own sweet will.

(i) 'Perhaps the most rapid and remarkable change took place in the lifetime of William Caxton, the great printer, who was born in 1422 (died 1491). In his preface to his translation of the *Æneid* of Virgil, which he published in 1490, he says that he

cannot understand old books that were written when he was a boy—that 'the olde Englysshe is more lyke to Dutche than Englysshe,' and that 'our langage now vsed varyeth ferre from that whiche was vsed and spoken when I was borne. For we Englysshemmen ben borne vnder the domynacion of the mone, which is neuer sted faste, but ener wauerynge, wexynge one season, and waneth and decreaseth another season

(ii) Again, to prove that different dialects were very powerful 'in England, and that "comyn englysshe that is spoken in one shyre varyeth from another" he tells a story of some merchants who were wind bound at the North Foreland, and went on shore to get some provisions. One of the merchants entered a house, and "axed for mete, and speccially he axyd after eggys. But the good wife replied that she 'coude speke no frenshe." The merchant, who lost his temper at being mistaken for a Frenchman, insisted on having egg, but "she understoodo hym not." Luckily, a friend happened to come up and he acted as interpreter between the two. The friend said that "ho woldo have eyren, then the goode wyf sayde that she understoode him wel." And then the simple minded and perplexed Caxton goes on to exclaim "Loo! what sholdo a man in thysse dayes wryte, eggis or eyren?"

The Southern English for egg was *ey* or *el* (like the German *ei*)

(iii) Such inflections as *en* for the infinitive (as *ben* for *be*, *syghen* for the infinitive of *fight*), *eth* for the third person singular of verbs, and others, still remained

(iv) Such spellings as *power* for *poor*, *style* for *still*, *schal* for *shall*, *wol* for *will*, are very common

8 Literature—There is no great or very prominent name in English Literature through the whole of this century. There was little prose except the chronicles written by monks or the memoirs of kings written by their heralds or their chaplains. By far the best prose, indeed, was that of Caxton himself, who edited and translated a large number of valuable books. The only two poets of the smallest note were John of Lydgate, who wrote the lives of some of the Saints, and the Story of Thebes, and Thomas Occleve, whose works are of little value. Much the truest and best poet of the time was James I of Scotland, who, when detained a prisoner in Windsor Castle, wrote a beautiful poem about Lady Jane Beaufort, which he called the King's Quhair (*King's Quire or Book*). The best poetry of the century, however, consisted of the ballads which passed from mouth to mouth, and which were sung at wakes, fairs, weddings and other junketings. The best of these vigorous and racy productions "which smacked of the soil," were Sir Patrick Spens, Edom o' Gordon, the Nut Brown Mayde, and the group which recounts the exploits of Robin Hood and his Merry Men.

(i) Lydgate's chief poems were the *Falls of Princes*, the *Storie of Thebes*, and the *Troye Boole*

(ii) Other famous Scottish poets are Robert Henryson of Dunfermline, and Blind Harry, a wandering minstrel, who wrote an epic poem on the deeds of William Wallace

9 The New Time—The end of the reign of Henry VII marks the close of the period called the Middle Ages. New ways of

thinking, new ways of living, new manners and customs, new institutions both in Church and State, a "New Learning," and new ideas regarding religion, begin to make their appearance at the end of the fifteenth, and the beginning of the sixteenth, centuries. The changes of thought and manners were so rapid that there was less difference between the England of Alfred, in the ninth century, and the England of Edward I, in the thirteenth, than there was between the reigns of Edward IV, in the fifteenth century and of Henry VIII, early in the sixteenth.

(i) The population of England was in this century about four millions

(ii) "The great houses fell, not by the accident of civil warfare, but because they deserved to fall, because they had been turbulent, aggressive, and tyrannical, because they had misused the strength of their position to oppress their inferiors in social rank with forms of law and without forms of law. The monarchy in the hands of Henry VII stepped into their place because it was able to realise the promise of the elder monarchy to dispense justice without fear or favour, to check the ascendancy of the rich over the poor, of the strong over the weak."—PROF GARDINER

PLAN OF DATES
FIFTEENTH CENTURY

1400 Conspiracy of Lords Appellant Murder of Richard II Rebellion of Glendower	1401 Act <i>De Heretico com- burendo</i> The first execution (of Sir William Sawtre) for Lollard heresy in England.	1402 Battle of Homildon Hill.	1403 Conspiracy of Percies, etc Battle of Shrewsbury	1404 'Great and Courageous' The Unlearned at Court
1410			Treaty of Trarlingham	
1411 Detainers prohibited by Parliament.	1412 Prince of Wales dismissed from the Council.	1413 Death of Henry IV HENRY V	1421 Third Invasion of France William Caxton born	
1414 Execution of Sir John Oldcastle	1415 Henry claims the French Crown First Invasion of France Battle of Agincourt.	1416 Henry allies himself with Burgundy A lit candle in a lantern to be placed at every door in London.	1424 Battle of Verneuil (secures communication with Brittany). Peace with Scotland. James I sent back.	
1440			Execution of	
1441 Eton College founded.	1442 Henry marries Margaret of Anjou.	1443 Richard Duke of York Protector (Henry being insane).	1451 Loss of Bordeaux and Bayonne	
1444 Game and Playe of the Chess first English book printed.	1445 Clarence found dead	1446 Lambert Simnel.	1454 Richard Duke of York Protector (Henry being insane).	
1470 Edward flees to Flanders Restoration of Henry VI			1481 Villengage almost extinct; but the free labourer is severely oppressed.	
1471 Battle of Barnet Battle of Tewkesbury Death of Henry VI.	1472 No Parliament (for about eight years). Treaty of Pecquigny	1473 Clarence found dead	1484 Benevolences abolished Death of the Prince of Wales	
1474 Game and Playe of the Chess first English book printed.	1475 Clarence found dead	1476 Lambert Simnel.	1487 Lambert Simnel.	
1477 Clarence found dead	1478 Lambert Simnel.	1479 Lambert Simnel.	1487 Lambert Simnel.	

reat Peace.	1430 Election of Knights of the Shire restricted to forty shilling freeholders (First disfranchisement Act)		
1423 Battle of Crevant (secures communication with Burgundy).	1431 Joan of Arc burnt at Rouen Henry VI crowned at Paris	1432	1433
1426	1434	1435 Congress of Arras Death of Bedford	1436 Paris taken by the French
1429 Joan of Arc raises the siege of Orleans Henry VI crowned. Protectorate ceases.	1437	1438	1439
Jack Cade	1460 Battle of Northampton Capture of Henry VI Battle of Wakefield. York is killed.		
1453 Death of Talbot. Loss of France Calais the only English posses- sion in France	1461 Battle of Mortimer's Cross Second Battle of St. Albans EDWARD IV declared King Battle of Towton.	1462	1463
1456	1464 Battle of Hedgeley Moor Battle of Hexham. Edward IV marries Elizabeth Woodville	1465	1466
1459 Battle of Bloreheath	1467	1468 No Parliament (for four years)	1469
	1490		
1483 Death of Edward IV EDWARD V Deposition of Edward V RICHARD III Disappearance of the two Princes	1491	1492 Perkin Warbeck.	1493
1486 Henry VII marries Eliza- beth of York. (Union of the two Roses)	1494 Poynings' Law in Ireland.	1495 Statute of Liveries	1496 The Magnus Intercursus (a commercial and political treaty with Burgundy).



CHAPTER II

HENRY THE EIGHTH

Born 1491 Succeeded (at the age of 18) in 1509 Died 1547

Reigned 38 years

HENRY VIII was the second son of Henry VII and Elizabeth of York. He united in his own person the two houses of York and Lancaster. He married, in 1509—the year of his accession,—Katharine of Arragon, the widow of his elder brother Arthur. Katharine had a daughter, Mary, who reigned from 1553 to 1558. Henry had five more wives: Anne Boleyn, Jane Seymour, Anne of Cleves, Katharine Howard, and Katharine Parr. The last three had no children. Anne Boleyn had a daughter—Elizabeth, who reigned from 1558 to 1603, and Jane Seymour a son, Edward VI, who reigned from 1547 to 1553.—Henry VIII, as the second son, had been educated for the Church, and this education enabled him to write, in Latin, his “Defence of the Seven Sacraments” against Luther—a book which procured for him from Leo X, in 1521, the title of “Defender of the Faith”—a title still retained by English sovereigns.

‘He was the first prince for more than a century who ruled the Kingdom with an undisputed title. Every other monarch, since the deposition of Edward II, had been accounted a usurper by a portion of the people. Henry united in himself the titles of York and Lancaster. He had no visible competitor for the Crown, nor was he disquieted by the shadow of a pretender.’ —BLACKSTONE

CONTEMPORARY SOVEREIGNS

SCOTLAND	FRANCE	SPAIN
JAMES IV to 1513	LOUIS XII to 1515	FERDINAND to 1516
JAMES V to 1542	FRANCIS I to 1547	CHARLES V
MARY		

✓ 1 Henry VIII, 1509-1547—Henry was not quite eighteen when he was called to the throne. He was singularly handsome as a young man, strong and skilful in arms, generous in disposition, witty, able, and learned, and with high aims for the good of his kingdom. The extortions practised by his father and his ministers were at once stopped. Two of these ministers, Empson and Dudley, were flung into the Tower, which they left only to part with their heads at

the block The charge made against them was that of treason, and though they deserved their fate, the charge for which they suffered was a false one—The young king had succeeded to unbounded wealth, and he showed as great a power of spending as his father had shown of saving Banquets, entertainments, shows, diversions, and festivals of every kind followed each other in rapid succession, and the king soon gained a wide and strong personal popularity, which he never entirely lost. His reign falls easily into two periods, and the division is marked by the important question of the divorce of Henry from Katharine of Arragon The first part, which lasted twenty years, is concerned chiefly with foreign affairs, foreign wars and international diplomacy; and, beside the king, towers the well-known figure of the great Cardinal Wolsey The year 1528 forms the turning-point of Henry's life, and the beginning of the second part of his reign It is also a most momentous crisis in the history of the nation The Divorce-Question became a national, and even a European, question, and it led to the severance from Rome, to the dissolution of the monasteries, and to the recasting of the character of the Church of England.

(i) The Venetian Ambassador, in 1519, wrote home about the king as follows —

His Majesty is twenty nine years old and extremely handsome Nature could not have done more for him. He is much handsomer than any other sovereign of Christendom—a good deal handsomer than the King of France—very fair and his whole frame admirably proportioned. On hearing that Francis I wore a red beard he allowed his own to grow and as it is reddish he has now got a beard that looks like gold. He is very accomplished a good musician composes well is a most capital horseman a fine punster speaks good French Latin and Spanish is very religious hears three masses daily when he hunts and some times five on other days.

(ii) "There never was a man more representative of a people than was Henry VIII of the England of his day In him met the brutal passions of his subjects with their dogged persistency, their love of show and splendour, their intellectual, moral, and religious tendencies Low and high, coarse and cultured, mocking and serious, he had a side for all He could speak to each rank, to each character, in the name of England, because all England was in himself"—GARDINER.

✓ 2 War with France—The king had married his brother's widow, Katharine of Arragon, and this Spanish marriage naturally made him an enemy of France The enormous wealth he had inherited enabled him to assemble powerful fleets and large armies, and he even took the Emperor of Germany into his daily pay This emperor, Maximilian, commanded Henry's cavalry, wore the Tudor colours of green and white, and received every day an allowance of

one hundred golden crowns In 1512 the French fleet was attacked near Brest, and in 1513 the English cavalry, under their Emperor-general, routed the French at Guinegate, a small town to the south of Calais The French nobles and knights showed no fight, but turned their horses' heads, dug spurs into their sides, and galloped off in utter rout. The battle was ever after known as the *Battle of the Spurs*

Battle of
the Spurs
1513.

"No one saw, in such a simple event as his marriage with Katharine, the seeds of a great revolution.

3 Flodden, Sept 9, 1513 —The Scots were at this time allies of France, as they had been before James IV collected an army, and marched as a counter-plot and military diversion,¹ to invade England in the absence of the king Queen Katharine at once despatched Thomas Howard, Earl of Surrey, with a strong army, to meet him, and the two forces met a fortnight after the Battle of the Spurs, at the foot of the Cheviot Hills, at a place called Flodden Field The Scots held Flodden Hill, but Surrey, by a skilful movement, threw himself between the Scottish army and Scotland The Scots were obliged to leave Flodden Hill, were hemmed in on all sides by the English, and hardly a man escaped The king was found next day almost cut to pieces, and nine thousand Scotchmen lay dead upon the field The flower of the Scottish nation fell there, and there was not a noble house in the whole land but had to lament the loss of its head or of some one of its members Songs long after told the sorrow of the people, and in every glen and homestead might be heard the sad accents of ballad and lament, that "the flowers of the forest are all wede away"²— All the Scottish cannon were taken, and were carried to London as splendid trophies Every cannon then, as ships have now, had a name for they were of enormous value, and seven handsome brass culverins,³ eighteen-pounders, called the *Seven Sisters*, were much admired by the English soldiers

Flodden
Field.
1513.

(i) An old ballad gives the position of the two armies —

"The English line stretched east and west,
And southward were their faces set
The Scottish northward proudly prest,
And manfully their foes they met

¹ To *deceit* or turn away the enemy's attention from another point of attack

² Wedded out

³ A very long gun One still at Dover Castle goes by the name of Queen Elizabeth's Pocket Pistol "

(ii) "The Scots left on the field the king, two bishops, two mitred abbots twelve earls, thirteen lords, and five eldest sons of peers. There is scarcely a family of name in Scottish history who did not lose a relative there." —SIR WALTER SCOTT

One of these bishops was Alexander Stewart Archbishop of St. Andrews an illegitimate son of James IV. He was cut down by Lord Stanley of Alderley and his skull with the piece cut out is now in the University Museum at St. Andrews. Dean Stanley Lord Rector of the University in one of his addresses to the students made an apology more than three hundred years after for the "accident" brought about by his ancestor.

(iii) Flodden is a plateau at the eastern end of the Cheviot Hills. Round its base circles the Till in its northerly course to the Tweed.

Feld is the English form of the Scandinavian word *Fjeld* (or *Fjeld*) and means a tableland or elevated region. It is often wooded. In Dutch it appears as *veld* and *laal* in German as *Wald* in Old English as *Wold*.

4 Relations with the Continent—The two great continental powers at this time were France and Spain. Spain had become a great and wealthy state by the union of the two kingdoms of Arragon and Castile, and by the wonderful fortune which gave her the riches and the lands of the New World. But France was also rich and great, and she held a stronger position between the Mediterranean and the English Channel—Peace was first made with the French by the marriage of Henry's sister, Mary Tudor, to Louis XII. This king dying three months after, Mary married Charles Brandon, the new Duke of Suffolk, and by this marriage became the ancestor of Lady Jane Grey. In the month of June 1520, Henry crossed over to France to meet the new king, Francis I. They met between Guines and Ardres, two small towns between Calais and Boulogne. The object of each seemed to be who should spend most money and outvie the other in splendour, and the meeting-place is known in history as *The Field of the Cloth of Gold*. Three weeks were spent in feasts, tournaments, and balls, but nothing came of all this for France. As soon as the conference was over, Henry rode to meet Charles V at Gravelines, a small town on the coast, north east of Calais. Charles V was now not only ruler of Spain, Austria, Naples, and the Netherlands, but he had also been elected Emperor of Germany. In 1522, Henry and he made war upon France together, and that beautiful country was ravaged up to the gates of Paris by the Duke of Suffolk. Peace was made in 1525, and the French agreed to pay to Henry an annual tribute.

Field of
the Cloth
of Gold
1520

(i) Charles V had been elected Emperor of Germany, and, as he was now ruler of Spain, the Netherlands, Germany, Austria, and Naples, he was the most powerful

monarch in the world His mother was Joanna, daughter of the "Makers of Spain" — the great Ferdinand and Isabella, and sister to Katharine of Arragon

(ii) Wolsey favoured the alliance with Charles v, because Charles had promised to use his influence with the College of Cardinals to get Wolsey elected Pope

✓ **5 Cardinal Wolsey** — The chief adviser of Henry at this time was Thomas Wolsey, a priest, and the son of a butcher and burgess of Ipswich Wolsey was sent by his father to Magdalen College, Oxford, became a Bachelor of Arts at fourteen and was called the "Boy Bachelor", was appointed Fellow and Tutor of his College, and, in time, rose to be Archbishop of York, Lord Chancellor of the kingdom, Cardinal, and Pope's Legate, and he had made up his mind to be one day Pope himself He was the chief minister of the Crown, and the virtual ruler both of Church and State in England The affairs of the whole kingdom were in his hands, the affairs of the whole of Christendom should be in his hands also — He had two great palaces, Hampton Court and York Place His palaces were as sumptuously managed as those of the king, a train of nobles and prelates attended him wherever he moved, and his household consisted of five hundred nobles, knights, and barons of the realm His pomp was regal, and his mind more than princely it was imperial

(i) Wolsey was also one of the greatest pluralists ever known in England He held the Sees of York and Winchester, and he farmed out those of Bath, Worcester, and Hereford to foreign prelates He was also Abbot of St Albans

(ii) "His train amounted to a thousand, of whom the gentlemen marched out of London in ranks of three, in black velvet coats, with gold chains round their necks, while his yeomen and their servants were in orange tawny coats, with T C for Thomas, Cardinal, embroidered upon them Before him were carried his two silver crosses and two silver pillars The Great Seal, his Cardinal's hat, and a scarlet bag embroidered with gold, each also had a sealman to carry it, and the Cardinal himself rode in sumptuous robes, with a sparo horse and mule led behind him, trapped with scarlet and gold while harbingers were sent before, to prepare quarters for all this train. Eighty wagons and twenty sumpter mules preceded this cavalcade — YONGE

(iii) His position as Chancellor made him the first man in the State his position as Legate gave him the highest place in the Church

✓ **6 The Divorce of Katharine** — Henry had been married about sixteen years to his wife Katharine, when his mind and affections began to change towards her She was older than he, death had carried off child after child, she had never had a son, and their only surviving offspring was Mary, a sickly and ill-looking little girl.

Henry began to think, or pretended to think, that his marriage with the widow of his own brother was marked with the curse of Heaven. The question of the succession was also a very serious matter. For this and for more selfish reasons, he and Wolsey began to cast about how she might be divorced. The Pope would not directly favour the plan, but he sent Cardinal Campeius¹ to form a court with Cardinal Wolsey, and to try the case. The two Cardinals took their seats, on the 21st of June 1529, in the Great Hall of the Monastery of the London Black Friars, the King sat upon their right hand, and the Queen upon their left. When Henry's name was called, he answered to it, and acknowledged the legality of the court, but Katharine, instead of answering to her name, flung herself at the feet of her husband, reminded him of their married life and their little dead children, swore she had always been a true and loving helpmate, and besought him with tears of anguish to put an end to these terrible tortures of law. Henry sat unmoved, and the Queen, rising in indignation, left the court, never again to make her appearance in it. She retired to Kimbolton, in Huntingdonshire, where she died seven years after.

“To God I commit my cause! And with that she rose up, making a low curtsy to the king, and so departed from thence. Many supposed that she would have resorted again to her former place, but she took her way straight out of the house, leaning as she was wont always to do, upon the arm of her general receiver, called Master Griffith. —CAVENDISH

7 The Fall of Wolsey.—The Pope, it appeared, could not or would not grant the divorce, and Thomas Cranmer, a member of Jesus College, Cambridge, “at once a divine and a courtier,” proposed that the Universities, both English and foreign, should be asked the question, “Do the laws of God allow a man to marry his brother's widow?” Henry coarsely exclaimed that Cranmer “had got the right sow by the ear,” and, as Wolsey was unable to carry out the wishes of Henry with the Pope, and as the king began to see he could do without him, this was the beginning of Wolsey's fall.—On Michaelmas Day of 1529 an indictment was drawn up against him, charging him with breaking the law of Præmunire by receiving Bulls and letters from Rome. He was tried and condemned, the Great

¹ His right name an Italian one was *Campegio*. The above is the Latin form used in the writings of the time and by Shakespeare in the play of Henry VIII.

Seal was taken from him, and he was ordered to give up all his secular offices, to leave London, and to reside at Esher, in Surrey. His fall was sudden, and the blow was terrible. "His face," wrote the French ambassador, "is dwindled to half its size, and even his enemies pity him." And enemies he had in crowds, the popular name for him was "the butcher's dog." He was next ordered to go down to his See of York, and, while he was sitting in Cawood House, near that city, Earl Percy arrested him on a charge of high treason. The poor old man mounted his mule and turned his face to the south. He was miserably ill, and could hardly sit up. He was suffering under an attack of dysentery, and on reaching, with pain and weakness and shortness of breath, the gates of Leicester Abbey, he said to the Head, "Father Abbot, I am come to lay my bones among you." It was true, he died on the 29th of November 1530, at the age of sixty. His last words to his faithful attendant and secretary, Thomas Cromwell, are given by Shakespeare with almost exact fidelity,—

Fall of
Wolsey
1529.

O Cromwell Cromwell,
Had I but served my God with half the zeal
I served my King, he would not in mine age
Have left me naked to mine enemies

He was the last great churchman of the Roman school, and soon after his death the Papal power in England was utterly gone.

(i) The Pope Clement VII was a prisoner (in the Castle of St. Angelo, Rome) in the hands of Charles V, and dared not do anything to displease him. Charles was Katharine's nephew.

(ii) Henry had himself expressly permitted Wolsey to accept the post of Papal Legate, but, when it served his purpose, he allowed Parliament to accuse him of having broken the Statute of Praemunire. The penalties for this were forfeiture of all goods to the king and imprisonment during his pleasure.

(iii) As the clock struck eight, on the Eve of St. Andrew, 1530, this master spirit departed, dying, it would seem, of a broken heart.

✓ 8 Henry's Six Wives—After consulting the Universities, Henry privately married Anne Boleyn, a young maid of honour at the court, whose pretty face and lively manner had attracted his attention. Thomas Cranmer was created Archbishop of Canterbury (1533), and as Primate of all England, he pronounced the marriage with Katharine to be null and void from the beginning. In 1536 Anne's marriage was itself declared null and void, and she was accused of unfaith-

fulness to the king, and beheaded on Tower Hill. She left one daughter, Elizabeth, who was born in 1533.—The day of her execution Henry, dressed all in white, rode into Wiltshire, and there, the day after, married another maid of honour Jane Seymour, the daughter of a knight of that county. In about a year she had a little boy, Edward, afterwards Edward VI., but she herself died a week after his birth.—Thomas Cromwell, who at this time filled the place of his friend and master Wolsey, now advised Henry to take a wife from among the Protestant princesses of Germany. Accordingly, he married Anne of Cleves by proxy. When the lady herself came over, he could not endure the sight of her—she was fat, coarse, ugly, and stupid. The king set his wits to work, found a pretext for declaring this marriage also null and void, and pensioned off the lady, who made no objection.—Without delay he married again. The new wife was Katharine Howard, a niece of the Duke of Norfolk. She, like Anne Boleyn, was accused of unfaithfulness, and beheaded on Tower Hill in 1542.—The year after, Henry married his sixth wife, Lady Latimer, the widow of Lord Latimer, who is better known by her maiden name of Katharine Parr. She was a careful and prudent woman, took care never to contradict the king, nursed him when he was ill, and contrived to keep her head safe upon her shoulders.

(i) The following is a list of Henry's six wives (1) Katharine of Arragon d 1530 (2) Anne Boleyn, executed 1536 (3) Jane Seymour died 1537 (4) Anne of Cleves, divorced 1540, (5) Katharine Howard, executed 1542 (6) Katharine Parr outlived Henry

(ii) The marriage with Anne of Cleves was promoted by Cromwell, who wished to see his master allied with the German Protestant Princes. A flattering portrait of the lady induced Henry to consent. Parliament, always servile to the king, annulled the marriage on two grounds (a) that she had been previously contracted to the Duke of Lorraine (b) that Henry had not unlawfully given his consent. She was treated as an "adopted sister" was allowed a pension of £3000 a year and on these terms willingly agreed to the divorce.

(iii) Katharine Parr's enemies insinuated to Henry that she is a heretic and things went so far that Garmer obtained his authority to prepare articles for her impeachment. Henry said, in reply to a remark of Katharine's "A good hearing it is when women become such clerks, and a thing much to my comfort to come in mine old age to be taught by my wife." But Katharine turned away his anger by replying "No, sir, I only wish to divert you from your pain by an argument, in which you so much shine." The king was appeased, and again called her "Kate, friend, and sweet-heart"

(i) The following is the

GENEALOGY OF THE HOWARDS

JOHN HOWARD, DUKE OF NORFOLK (killed at Bosworth, 1485)

THOMAS HOWARD, 1st EARL OF SURREY (Commander at Flodden, 1513)

THOMAS HOWARD
(Duke of Norfolk),
d. 1554

Edmund Howard

William Howard
(Lord Howard
of Effingham)

ELIZABETH HOWARD
m. Sir Thomas
Boleyn

Henry, Earl of
Surrey (executed
1547)

Katharine Howard
m. HENRY VIII
(executed 1512)

Lord Charles Howard
(defeated the
Armada, 1588)

Anno Boleyn, m.
HENRY VIII
(executed 1536)

QUEEN ELIZABETH
(1558-1603)

THOMAS HOWARD
(Duke of Norfolk),
executed 1572

9 The Breach with Rome — We must now go back to the year 1530. On the fall of Wolsey, Sir Thomas More received the Great Seal, but Cromwell was Henry's chief adviser. Thomas Cromwell was the son of a blacksmith at Putney (near London), had served as a common soldier or "ruffian" in the Italian wars, had been a clerk, a wool merchant, and a money-lender. As man of business to Wolsey, he had worked hard for the suppression of the smaller monasteries. On Wolsey's fall, Cromwell had an interview with the king, and suggested that Henry need not trouble himself about the decision of the Pope in any way, but should cut the knot of the divorce question by making himself the Head of the Church. The king quietly pocketed the advice and mused upon it. Cromwell was made Vicar-General, and also Chancellor, so that he held in his own hands all matters both secular and spiritual. The country was at this time eager for a reform of the ecclesiastical establishments, and Henry, in addition to suppressing four hundred religious houses, enacted a statute that from Easter 1534 no appeals should be made by any person whatever to the "Bishop of Rome, otherwise called the Pope." The year after Henry had himself proclaimed Supreme Head of the Church of England. All his servants past and present were compelled to take an oath of acknowledgment of his new title. The great and good Sir Thomas More, and Fisher, the Bishop of Worcester, refused.

Henry Su-
preme Head
of the
Church of
England
1535

(i) The following were the links of connection between the Pope and the Church of

England (a) The Pope was Head of the Church (b) Appeals were regularly sent up from the English ecclesiastical courts to the Pope as the ultimate Court of Appeal. The Act of Praemunire had thus, to a great extent, fallen into abeyance, (c) The Pope had in his own hands the patronage of the English sees and of many other offices in the Church. Thus the Statute of Provisors of 1351 was in abeyance, (d) Archbishops, bishops, deans and the beneficed clergy, paid their first year's income after their appointment to a benefice to the Pope. This was the 'annates or first fruits'. The duty paid to the Pope their Peter's Pence (Rom feoh or Rome Scot)—a tax of one penny per annum on each hearth.

(ii) All of these links were destroyed by the action of the Seven Years Parliament between 1529 and 1536.

(iii) 'Henry threw off the authority of the Pope simply because he was tired of a staid and elderly wife, and had fallen in love with a slightly young woman.' — GARDINER

(iv) "Bishop Fisher was, says Mr. Green, "the most inflexibly honest churchman of the age."

10 Thomas More — This great Englishman was born, in 1480, in Milk Street, Cheapside, opposite that Bread Street where John Milton came into the world a century and a quarter later. He was, when a boy, a page in the house of Archbishop Morton, who prophesied he would "prove a marvellous man". Dean Colet, who founded St Paul's School, said of him "There is but one wit¹ in England, and that is young More". He rose to be Lord-Chancellor, and was indeed the first Lord-Chancellor who was not a clergyman. He was the Lord Chancellor between Wolsey and Thomas Cromwell. Refusing to take the oath of supremacy, which would have the effect of declaring his belief in the religious validity of the divorce of Katharine, and of sanctioning the marriage with Anne Boleyn, he was thrown into the Tower, and brought to trial at Westminster in 1535. No such culprit had stood at any European bar for a thousand years. He was condemned to death. When he walked up-stairs to the scaffold, the wooden staircase shook, and he had to stop. "See me safe up," he said to the attendant with the genuine humour which had been his friend through life, "and as for my coming down, I will take care of that myself." When his head was on the block, he asked for a moment's delay to move aside his beard. "Pity that should be cut," he said "that has not committed treason." He was one of the most wonderful men that England has produced—a great writer, a great lawyer, and a great statesman.

Execution
of Sir
Thomas
More
1535

¹ This meant, in the sixteenth century *man of ability*.

(i) "More's father, old Sir John, though nearly ninety, still sat as senior justice in the Court of King's Bench, and there, every morning, before going to his own Court, the Lord Chancellor knelt before the old man to ask his blessing — YONGE. "When did nature mould a temper more gentle, and endearing, and happy, than the temper of Thomas More? —GREEN"

(ii) More was the author of a "Life of Edward V" and also of a satire on the bad laws and abuses of the time. This satire took the form of the description of a quite ideal commonwealth, and its title was *Utopia* (=Nowhere). In the *Utopia*, every person was taught to read and to write, no one worked more than nine hours a day, every head of a family had a vote, and that vote was taken by ballot. This book contained the germ of all humanitarian legislation—that the motive of the criminal law should be reformation, not punishment.

(iii) More formed with Erasmus, Colet, Grocyn, and Linacre the noble band of "Oxford Reformers" who brought the New Learning to England,—the study of Greek, the philosophy of Plato, and the theology of St. Paul. Reformer as More was, however, his constitutional conservatism would not permit him to break with the historic Mother Church.

11. "The Pilgrimage of Grace"—Religious opinion and the feelings of quiet people were greatly disturbed and unsettled by the Divorce Question, the severance from Rome, and the suppression of the monasteries. Cromwell had flooded the country with spies, and these men reported to him that one centre of reaction was the Nun of Kent, a half-witted woman, who prophesied the early death of the king. She was seized and apprehended in 1534. This, and the execution of More and Fisher in the following year, agitated men's minds still more intensely. The people of the North had always been very conservative, regarded their monks with great favour, and saw with bitter sorrow their old thriving villages turned into bare sheep-walks. Yorkshire and Lincolnshire rose in rebellion, under the leadership of a young lawyer, Robert Aske. An army of 30,000 men was raised—"as tall men, well-horsed and well-applied, as any men could be." Their badge was the "Five wounds of Christ", and the movement was called the "Pilgrimage of Grace." Aske, a noble, religious, and disinterested man, was arrested, and was put to death along with four abbots and two other leaders. A committee of the Privy Council, called the "Council of the North," was appointed to manage, from this time, the affairs of the northern cities.

The Pil-
grimage of
Grace
1536

(i) The spies of Cromwell were so numerous that "men felt as if a scorpion lay sleeping under every stone."

(ii) The objects of the Pilgrimage of Grace were to bring about (a) reunion with the Pope, (b) recognition of the Princess Mary, Katharine's daughter, as heir to the crown and (c) the restoration of the Monasteries

(iii) This Council sat for four months in the year, at Hull York, Durham and Newcastle.

12. Thomas Cromwell.—Henry did not wish to separate himself from Rome in doctrine, but only in government. He had no sympathy with his contemporary Martin Luther, and the men of the "New Learning" or "new opinions," were not favoured by him. These soon began to be distinguished by the name of *Protestants*, those who adhered to the Pope were called *Romanists* or *Papists*, and by themselves *Catholics*. But these names were the names of two parties within the one Church, and not of two separate sects or churches.—Thomas Cromwell had by this time been created Baron Cromwell and Earl of Essex. He was the king's right hand in all Church business, and he was generally known throughout the country as the "Hammer of the Monks"¹. Not only did he put down the smaller and the greater monasteries, but he caused famous relics, images, and shrines to be destroyed, and the jewels and gold and rich offerings found in them were placed in the king's exchequer. Chief among these was the great shrine of England—the shrine of Thomas Becket. That shrine was rich with the offerings of thousands of loyal spirits, who had been helped by the strong religious genius of the man they looked upon as a martyr. Not content with seizing this wealth, Henry went through the solemn farce of trying a man who had been dead for four hundred years, and having him condemned as a traitor. He also drew up an Act called the "Statute of the Six Articles," which was directed against the holders of the "new opinions." Thus Henry persecuted in both directions. if a good Catholic disowned his supremacy, he was burned or hanged, if a Protestant denied one of the doctrines in the Six Articles, his fate was as certain and as severe.

(i) "Fox calls this statute 'the whip with six strings.' It was something more terrible than a whip. It breathed the amplest threats of the stake at Smithfield and the gallows at Tyburn. —KNIGHT

(ii) It was also called "the Bloody Bill." The chief points it asserted were (a)

¹ In Latin, *Malleus Monachorum*

The doctrine of Transubstantiation (b) The celibacy of the clergy, and (c) Auricular confession

(iii) 'Five hundred arrests were made by the eager Catholic party in a single fortnight after the passing of the Bill but only twenty eight suffered under the statute during the whole reign'—*Encyc Brit*

13 Henry is deposed.—And now (1538) the Pope, Paul III, issued a Bull excommunicating and deposing Henry, and Reginald Pole, a grandson of the Duke of Clarence, and a Cardinal of the Church, did what he could to stir up foreign powers to make war upon England. The only result of his efforts was to bring his brother, Lord Montacute, and his mother, the Countess of Salisbury—the last of the direct line of the Plantagenets—to death upon the scaffold

(i) The Countess of Salisbury was daughter of the Duke of Clarence, brother of Edward IV

(ii) Edward Courtenay, Marquis of Exeter, a grandson of Edward IV, was also executed. These executions were the last results of the old rivalry between the houses of York and Lancaster

14. The Fall of Cromwell, 1540—Henry's marriage with Anne of Cleves was the cause of Cromwell's downfall. He was attainted of treason by Act of Parliament without trial, and condemned to die by the axe. The king married Katharine Howard only two days after the execution of his old friend and servant

(i) The Protestant Princes now formed a league against Charles V, and Cromwell tried to induce Henry to join this league by marrying the daughter of the Duke of Cleves, who was one of the members

(ii) Cromwell showed Henry a portrait of Anne of Cleves by Holbein, but Holbein had flattered her greatly. Sir Anthony Brown, the Master of the Horse, had been sent in advance of the king, and "was never so much dismayed in his life to see the lady so far unlike what was reported"

15 The Dissolution of the Monasteries—There were in England during this reign six hundred and sixteen religious houses, which were inhabited by monks and nuns who had taken upon them the three vows of poverty, chastity, and obedience. The first attack that was made upon them came from Wolsey, who, in the year 1523, obtained Bulls from the Pope which authorised him to suppress forty of the smaller monasteries, and to apply their revenues to the support of colleges and schools. But it was not until after the break with

Rome that the general attack took place. In 1536, Parliament, at the instigation of Thomas Cromwell, passed an Act dissolving the smaller monasteries and nunneries, and transferring their property to the Crown. In 1539, another Act was passed dissolving the larger

Dissolution of Larger Monasteries 1539 monasteries also, and granting their revenues to the king. Much of their lands was given to the nobles who were favourites of Henry, the good-natured and easy-going

monks disappeared, arable land was turned into pasture, thousands of peasants were thrown out of work, the destitute could no longer ask for alms at the monastery doors, and distressful faces as well as "sturdy beggars" swarmed through the counties of England.

(i) The smaller monasteries meant those whose income was under £200 a year.

(ii) Of the religious orders there were 186 Benedictines, 173 Augustinians, 101 Cistercians, 28 of the Knights Hospitallers, etc. The Cistercians in Yorkshire were the chief traders in wool with the markets of Flanders. They built the beautiful Fountains Abbey (in Yorkshire), Tintern (in Monmouth), and Furness (in Lancashire).

(iii) The chief house of the Knights Hospitallers in England was the Hospital of St John, at Clerkenwell in the north of London.

16 The English Bible—One result of the great changes made in this reign, and of the revolt of Henry against the Pope, was the bringing in of the English Bible. William Tyndale, an able Oxford scholar, had translated most of the Bible and published it in 1530. In 1536 he was burnt by order of the Emperor of Germany in Vilvorde. King Henry, who had been at first destined for the Church, and had received as learned an education as most of his own bishops, did not like Tyndale's version, and he set Miles Coverdale of Cambridge to correct and add to it. By a royal order, a copy of Coverdale's translation was chained to a pillar or desk in every church and cathedral, and the joy of the common people was widespread and intense. Parties were made up to go to the church and hear it read, the ability to read was looked upon as the most enviable of human acquirements, and small crowds of people stood with open heart and eager minds to hear the new and wonderful words read to them in their mother-tongue—After the fall of Cromwell, Bishop Gardiner came into favour, and in 1543 he had an Act passed which forbade the reading of the Bible by "the lower sort", and for *their* reading the bishops were directed to draw up a

book, which was entitled, "The Necessary Doctrine and Education for any Christian Man."

(i) Tyndale's English New Testament was printed at Worms in 1525 Coverdale's Bible was published in 1535 Cranmer's, or "the Great Bible," was printed in 1540

(ii) Cranmer's Bible was sold at 13s 4d "unless Cromwell would give the printers exclusive privileges, when they might be sold for 10s

(iii) In 1538, the clergy received orders to set up a copy of the Bible in their parish churches, and to encourage their flocks to read it

17 Scotland —James v had succeeded his father after the battle of Flodden in 1513, but he was only two years old, and the regency was placed in the hands of John, Duke of Albany, Lord High Admiral of France, and nephew to James III His government was not at all popular, because most of the offices of State fell into the hands of his French followers Henry saw his opportunity, and, with his usual abruptness, sent a message to the Scotch commanding them to dismiss Albany and break off the alliance with France But the Scotch Parliament, called "The Estates," refused to do this The great leader of the French party was James Beaton, Archbishop of St Andrews, and Lord High Chancellor of the kingdom Wolsey tried all he could to lay hold of Beaton, but this powerful lord kept himself shut up in his strong castle of St Andrews,—ivy-grown and surf-beaten, standing above the long rocky reefs of an iron-bound and dangerous coast,—and from this stronghold he maintained his connection with France

"How to reach Beaton was the difficulty He was Primate and Lord Chancellor but what gave reality to the high offices was that he possessed the strong Castle of St Andrews, on a rock jutting into the sea There he intrenched himself, and became unapproachable, save to those whom he chose to receive"—Burns

18 James V of Scotland —At the age of twelve, James was set up to rule in his own name—a step which was known by the name of "The Erection", but he soon after fell into the power of the Earl of Angus, a Red Douglas —From this power he escaped, and soon made his personal rule felt by putting down lawlessness in the Highlands and on the Scottish Borders —In 1542 a war broke out with England Henry sent an army to invade Scotland, James marched south to meet it, but his army was defeated by a few hundred Englishmen at Solway Moss The king remained at Caerlaverock Castle on the Nith James rode in downcast and despairing

mood from Solway to Edinburgh, and from Edinburgh to Falkland Palace in Fife, where the news was brought to him that a daughter was born to his house. His head sank upon his breast, and he only muttered, "It cam' wi' a lass, and it'll gang wi' a lass." Eight days after, he died of a broken heart, on the 14th of December 1542. James was a handsome red-haired Scotsman, and his countrymen knew him by the name of the "Red Tod."¹

(i) Henry VIII, who was the uncle of James I, agreed to meet him at York to discuss affairs of State. Henry travelled in state to York, but no King of Scots came. Henry felt he had been made a fool of, and gave orders for the invasion of Scotland.

(ii) "It cam' wi' a lass." This is an allusion to the fact that Marjory, the daughter of King Robert the Bruce, married Walter, the High Steward of Scotland, and their son, Robert, was the first of the Stewart kings.

✓ 19 **Henry's Government**—Henry did all he could to rule without Parliament, and, when he did call the House of Commons together, he took care to pack it with men who were either his paid servants, or were known to be favourable to him. Twice did the Parliament pay his debts for him, three times did they alter the succession to the throne at his bidding, and, to crown all, they permitted him to dispose of his kingdom by will and testament, just as if England had been his own private and personal property. His strong will bore down everything—not only his Parliament but even his judges and his archbishops were his humble servants and willing slaves, and Henry was the most absolute tyrant that ever sat upon the throne of England.

20 **Henry's Death**.—Henry was now, by 1547, growing old, infirm, fat, irritable, and very suspicious. He flung Henry Howard, the Earl of Surrey (an able poet and most accomplished man), into the Tower on a charge of high treason, and a few days after had him beheaded. Surrey's father, the Duke of Norfolk, was also arrested—Henry, feeling his end approaching, gave back a small portion of his spoil to works of charity. He appointed sixteen "executors," among whom was the Earl of Hertford, to manage the affairs of the kingdom during the minority of his son Edward, and, should this prince die without children, the crown was to go first to Mary, and then to Elizabeth and

Death of
Henry VIII
1547.

her heirs. When told he was dying, he asked to see Cranmer. But the king was speechless when the archbishop arrived, and in this state he passed away.

The two men, Wolsey and More, who knew Henry most intimately, have left to us their impressions of his character in terms quite unmistakable.

- (a) Wolsey says: "He is a prince of royal courage and hath a princely heart, and rather than miss any part of his will or pleasure, he will endanger the loss of one half of his realm."
- (b) In the height of More's favour with the king, after walking an hour with him in the garden at Chelsea, the king holding his arm about his neck, More confessed that he had no cause to be proud thereof, for if any head would win him a castle in France it should not fail to go."

21 The Work of Parliament—Parliament, which was at this time less of a representative body than ever, met very seldom during this reign. And, even when it did meet, it showed itself little more than the willing tool of Henry. This ready subservience of Parliament was due to two causes: first, the greater and more powerful barons had been weeded out in the Wars of the Roses, second, the dissolution of the monasteries diminished the number of members of the House of Lords. The greater abbots had ceased to exist, and the character of the House lost in fearlessness and independence. The first important Parliament met in 1523. There had been no Parliament for eight years before. This Parliament had Sir Thomas More as its speaker, and, though it permitted Wolsey to come before it and to plead for a grant of money in person, it was independent enough to refuse Wolsey's petition, except in small part.—In the year 1529, the Seven Years' Parliament met for the first time. This Parliament carried out one of the greatest revolutions in the history of this country. Its chief work was the separation of the Church of England from Rome, and the making of it a national Church. In 1532 it passed an Act forbidding all appeals to Rome, and this had the effect of stopping the appeal of Katharine to the Pope in the question of her divorce.—In 1534 it passed an Act forbidding the payment of first-fruits (or annates) to Rome, and, in the same year, it passed another Act finally abolishing the authority of the Pope in England. In 1536 it restricted the privilege called "Benefit of Clergy."—Another Parliament, still more subservient to the wishes and whims of the king, enacted that the King's Proclamations should be as valid as Acts of Parliament, and thus committed a kind of political suicide.—And lastly, in 1544, Parliament passed an

Act to release the king from all his debts, or—in other words—to throw the loss of the money upon the king's creditors

(i) In the Act of 1534 a clause was inserted providing that archbishops and bishops should not be “presented to the Bishop of Rome, otherwise called the Pope, for confirmation, but that they should be elected by *congé d'élire*’

Congé d'élire = permission to elect This mode of electing bishops is still in use A *congé d'élire* is a letter from the Sovereign to the Dean and Chapter of a Cathedral professing giving them permission to elect a bishop But the name of the bishop they are to elect is given in the letter so that it is not a real *congé*. They are bound to elect the bishop named within 20 days or make themselves liable to the penalties stated in the Act of Praemunire

(ii) Henry, like his father, always employed the machinery of the constitution and the letter of the law to carry out his despotic and arbitrary desires

(iii) “This Parliament, which sat at intervals from 1529 to 1536 had little independent or substantive power, it was made up largely of nominees and creatures of the Court, and seldom moved but at the royal initiative’ —*Encyc Brit*

22 Great Men.—In the earlier period of Henry's reign, the three greatest men were Wolsey, More, and Fisher All three were disgraced by Henry, and the last two executed for refusing to swear to the Acts of Succession and Supremacy They declined to say what they did not believe—that the marriage with Anne Boleyn was valid, and that the King was supreme head of the Church, and, rather than say that, they went cheerfully to the place of execution —In the latter part of the reign we find Thomas Cromwell, Archbishop Cranmer, and Henry Howard, Earl of Surrey, who is one of the distinguished poets of this century

23 Social Facts—The suppression of the monasteries had discouraged agriculture, and had thrown a great deal of land into pasturage, it was found necessary to pass laws to stop the depopulation of the country which resulted—and the streaming of labourers into towns, and also to limit the number of sheep kept on a farm —In this reign a great improvement was introduced in the streets of London—the “common highways were very foul and jeopardous” they were now paved, and the formation of great holes, sloughs, and pits in the roads was thus stopped London had a population of 150,000 inhabitants, or was nearly as large as Leicester is to day The great thoroughfares were adorned with elaborately ornamented fountains, the water for which was brought in leaden pipes underground from Hampstead and other places —The steeple of Bow Church had lanterns, “whereby travellers might not miss of their ways” —Woolwich Dockyard was established in 1512 —The first

merchant ship to India sailed in the year 1541 — The rate of interest was fixed by law at 10 per cent.

SHORT CHRONOLOGY AND SUMMARY OF HENRY VIII'S REIGN

1509	Henry VIII marries Katharine of Arragon.	1534.	Act to abolish the authority of the Pope
1510	Empton and Dudley executed.	1535	Act of Supremacy, Henry "SUPREME HEAD of the Church of England."
1513	Battle of the Spurs. Battle of Flodden.	1536	Union of England and Wales as regards laws and inheritance of land, etc. Smaller Monasteries dissolved "The Pilgrimage of Grace"
1515	Wolsey, Lord Chancellor	1539	Henry's proclamations declared by a 'perfidious parliament' to be as valid as Acts of Parliament. All Monasteries dissolved. Act of the "Six Articles" passed.
1520	Field of the Cloth of Gold.	1540	Cromwell attainted and executed
1521.	Henry made "Defender of the Faith"	1542	Henry, "King of Ireland."
1527	Henry submits the validity of his marriage with Katharine to the Pope	1544	Henry invades France and takes Boulogne
1529	The Divorce Question appealed to Rome Fall of Wolsey Thomas More made Chancellor The Seven Years Parliament.	1547	Death of Henry VIII.
1530	Death of Wolsey		
1531.	Henry "Head of the Church."		
1534	Act forbidding the payment of First Fruits to Rome		

IMPORTANT CONTEMPORARY EVENTS

1512.	Ferdinand II of Arragon takes the title of "Ferdinand V, King of Spain."	1525	Francis I of France defeated by Charles V at Pavia. Rise of the power of Charles V
1517	Martin Luther draws up 95 theses against the sale of Indulgences, and so begins the "Reformation"	1527	Gustavus Vasa, King of Sweden
1519	Charles V elected Emperor of Germany Cortez conquers Mexico	1529	John Calvin preaches the "Reformed Doctrines" Lutherans hand in a "Protest" at the Diet of Spire. Hence called Protestants
		1532	Pizarro conquers Peru.

CHAPTER III

EDWARD THE SIXTH

Born 1537 Succeeded (at the age of 9) 1547 Died 1553
Reigned 6 years

EDWARD VI was the only son of Henry VIII and Jane Seymour, daughter of Sir John Seymour of Wiltshire. He was born at Hampton Court, 12th October 1537. His mother died twelve days after he was born. He was never married. He died of consumption at Greenwich, on July 6th, 1553, so that he was not quite sixteen years of age.

CONTEMPORARY SOVEREIGNS

SCOTLAND
MARY, QUEEN OF
SCOTS from 1542

FRANCE
HENRY II from
1547

GERMANY AND SPAIN
CHARLES V from 1519

1 Edward VI, 1547-1553—Edward was only nine years of age when he was called to wear the crown and to sit upon the throne. By his father's will, he was left to the charge of sixteen "Executors," and twelve Privy Councillors, who were to assist the executors and manage the affairs of the country until the boy should reach the age of eighteen. This Council consisted of the newer nobles—men who had been raised by the personal favour of Henry VIII, and the old nobility were carefully shut out. The Earl of Hertford prevailed upon his colleagues to make him *Governor* of the young king. The Earl of Hertford favoured the "New Opinions." Hertford was also created Duke of Somerset, and, very soon after, he used his influence to induce the boy to grant him letters-patent creating him Lord Protector of the whole kingdom. Thus Henry VIII's will was set aside, and Somerset could rule and act alone, without consulting his fellow-executors. In the first year of his rule, he invaded Scotland with the purpose of compelling the Scotch to carry out the marriage

treaty made with Henry VIII, and gained a complete victory over them at Pinkie, near Edinburgh. But he did not prevail upon them to allow him to carry off their young queen, the French alliance was too strong, and the young Princess Mary Stuart became the wife of the Dauphin, who, soon after, became Francis II of France. Battle of Pinkie 1547.

(i) EDWARD VI, until the age of six, was brought up "among the women." Sir John Cheke taught him Latin and Greek, Roger Ascham gave him lessons in penmanship. He could write Latin when he was eight, and he knew several Latin books by heart. He would "sequester himself into some chamber or gallery to learn his lessons, and he was always very cheerful at his books. He was crowned in Westminster Abbey by Archbishop Cranmer, who placed three crowns in succession on the head of the child—the Confessor's crown, the Imperial crown, and a smaller one made specially for himself. He was acknowledged at the same time as 'Supreme Head of the Church.' He lived a solitary life, and seldom saw his sisters. He signed with the greatest calmness the warrants for the execution of his two uncles, and made the following entry in his diary, 22d January 1552: "The Duke of Somerset had his head cut off on Tower Hill between eight and nine of the clock. He was short of stature, of fair complexion, and grey eyes. Dean Stanley speaks of him as "the tiger cub."

(ii) The story of a minority in England is always the story of a struggle between two interested and ambitious parties. The personal government of Henry VIII had left behind it a body of unprincipled men, who thought more of themselves than of their country. Edward VI's reign falls easily into two periods: the first, the ascendancy of Somerset, the second, of Northumberland. Somerset was the head of the reforming, innovating, and revolutionary party. Northumberland was on the side that promoted his own interests.

2 Somerset's Opinions—When Somerset returned to England he summoned the Parliament and set it to work on ecclesiastical business, for he was the leader of those who held what were coming to be called Protestant views, and was strongly in favour of the Reformers and the New Learning. He was also very eager to make himself popular. Accordingly Parliament, at his instigation, and assisted by Cranmer, repealed the "Six Articles" and the statutes against heretics (always excepting the Anabaptists, who were looked upon by both parties as very dangerous), abolished chantries,¹ replaced masses by the liturgy, ordered all statues, images, and pictures to be removed from the churches, and summed up the faith of Englishmen in forty-two² articles. The king, who was a mere

¹ Chapels where masses were *chanced* or sung for the dead. Large sums of money were left for this purpose. Chaucer praises his 'pore parson' for staying at home looking after his flock, and not running to London unto Beyste Poules to seeken him a Chaunterie for soules.

² Afterwards reduced to thirty-nine.

child, supported all these measures, and, indeed, his religious zeal surpassed that of Somerset himself. Hugh Latimer, bishop of Worcester, and a great, eloquent, and fearless preacher, had a pulpit erected in the young king's garden, and there the boy would sit and listen to his sermons for hours together.—The other promoters of these changes were Cranmer, archbishop of Canterbury, and Ridley, bishop of London. They were steadfastly opposed by Stephen Gardiner, bishop of Winchester, and Edmund Bonner, bishop of London, formerly of Hereford.

(i) Gardiner was thrown into the Tower

(ii) Bonner was deprived of his bishopric, which was given to Ridley. Bonner told his judges that he "had a few goods, a poor carcass, and a soul", that they might do what they liked with the two first, he would take good care of the last himself.

3 The New Policy—Henry VIII had taken the utmost care to prevent any change in the doctrines or in the ceremonies of religion in the Church of England, but this policy was almost entirely upset by the new government of Somerset. English was substituted in churches for the old ritual in Latin, the images were pulled down and destroyed, the pictures defaced, the mass was abolished, prayers for the dead done away with, and the English people saw with their eyes and heard with their ears the changes which the "Reformed Religion" was bringing about in the country. Somerset went even further. He disturbed and overthrew the organisation of labour by confiscating the property of all the guilds in England, with the exception of the guilds of London. The merchants, craftsmen, and artisans, who were members of these guilds, had subscribed their money to educate their children and apprentices, to support the old and superannuated guildsmen, to insure their lives, and to pay for masses for the dead. It was on the list of these considerations that their property was confiscated. All this was done, because Somerset had been strong enough to oust the representatives of the Old Religion from the Council of Regency. On the other hand, the clergy received permission to marry, the reading of the Bible was encouraged, and the beautiful prayers of the Common Prayer-Book became the common possession of the whole country.

4 Discontent—The poorer people of the country suffered terribly at this time. The monasteries had been the great mainstay of the

poor and had done all that the Poor Law does now, and more. The monks had been easy landlords and kind neighbours, they kept open house, and had daily meals for the poor at their gates, and, if a poor man had lost a horse or a cow or a sheep by accident or disease the monks were glad to make him a present of another. Now all this was gone. The new landlords were needy courtiers, who desired to screw every penny they could out of their tenants and workmen and having got their lands by hypocrisy and wrong,—for, as Bishop Lytmer said, ‘thousands became Gospellers for the Church lands,’—they held them with cruelty and exaction. They even began to seize upon and to enclose the commons. In addition to all this, the coinage was debased; wages would not rise, though prices were everywhere rising, and, owing to the demand for wool, large tracts of land were thrown out of tillage, and were turned into sheep-walks and pasture. To crown all, the plague appeared in 1548, and a disease called the “sweating sickness,” as fatal as the plague, attacked the sullen, overcrowded, and ill-fed peasants in 1551.—And now risings took place everywhere, from Devon in the west to Norfolk in the east, the whole country was in a blaze, and the Earl of Warwick was despatched to put down the insurrections. He hanged priest and monks from the church steeples, put the leaders to death, and dispersed the bodies of armed peasants. Robert Ket, a wealthy Norfolk farmer and the lord of three manors, was hanged at Norwich.—Nor were these risings induced by want of food alone. In the north and west of England, the people were strict Catholics, and they resented the abolition of the Mass, the new doctrines were in great favour in London and the large towns, but not in the country the Reformation was going too fast for the country people. Accordingly, Exeter was besieged by 10,000 men, who were, however, put to rout by Lords Russell and Grey. In no single respect had the policy of Somerset been a success.

(i) The new nobles and proprietors held their lands by a legal tenure, and pushed their legal rights to the very utmost. The villagers had always had the old rights to the commons, and used to let their pigs and geese graze on them.

(ii) Henry VIII had himself made £50,000 by debasing the coinage. But, in this ‘reign’ the debasement was much more serious. The Lords of the Council were allowed to reimburse themselves for the money they had spent in putting down the rebellions by coining inferior silver. The consequence was that the good money was sent out of the country, the purchasing power of a shilling was only sixpence

his sins and his shortcomings at the hour of his death, surrounded the scaffold, and when his head fell, rushed in to dip their kerchiefs in his blood, and laid them up among their dearest household treasures

(i) Lord Seymour of Sudeley, the Lord High Admiral of England, had refused to send the fleet against the Scotch, had entered into secret relations with the pirates of the English Channel (for whose use he purchased the Scilly Isles as a basis of operations), had started two cannon foundries, and had collected money and munitions of war.

(ii) "He pulled down divers churches and the cloister in St Pauls to build ^{the new} Somerset House withal

6 The Duke of Northumberland.—Warwick now had himself made Duke of Northumberland and Lord Protector of the kingdom. A strong Roman Catholic before, he now gave himself out for a thoroughgoing Protestant, and set to work so eagerly to push forward the Reformation, that the Princess Mary, taking alarm, tried to make her escape from the country. She was prevented, but fear of her Spanish uncle, the Emperor Charles v, removed from her the danger of pressure or molestation. Only, the young king sent for her, talked to her, and earnestly besought her to change her religion. But the reasonings of a boy of fourteen could not go very far with a woman twice his age—a woman, too, born of resolute Spanish blood. In 1553 the king fell dangerously ill, he had always been weak, and now symptoms of consumption began to show themselves.—In this juncture Northumberland found his opportunity. He saw, too, that if the Princess Mary came to the throne, his power was gone. Accordingly, he persuaded the dying lad to alter the succession, to shut out his sisters, and to settle the crown upon Lady Jane Grey, a granddaughter¹ of the Mary Tudor who had married Charles Brandon, Duke of Suffolk. The Council would not approve of this, but the vehemence of Northumberland carried everything before it, and at last the patent was signed by the king. Thus, for the second time within seven years, the crown of England was willed away as if it had been a piece of private property. Northumberland married his fourth son, Lord Guildford Dudley, to Lady Jane, and thus, in his own belief, succeeded in making the throne of England a snug heritage in his own family circle. Edward died at Greenwich a fortnight after signing the patent, and his last prayer was, that England

¹ She was the daughter of Henry Grey Duke of Suffolk who was the son of Mary Tudor and Charles Brandon

might be preserved from "Papistry" The fact of his death was kept secret for four days after, until Lady Jane was installed as queen, and, after he was dead, letters were sent to Mary and Elizabeth to come to the sick-bed of their brother, so that their persons might be seized and secured

(i) In the first draft of his will the king wrote that the crown was to pass "to the L. Janes heires masles", but Northumberland induced him to insert the two little simple words *and her*, so that the clause now ran thus "to the L. Jane and her heires masles". Meanwhile, Northumberland had made sure of Lady Jane for his own son.

(ii) In furtherance of this scheme, Northumberland showed the most furious violence, "declaring himself ready to fight for it in his shirt, browbeating the judges, and compelling them and most of Council, including Cranmer, to sign the instrument."

(iii) The misrule of Somerset and Northumberland is seen in the following results —

- (a) Poverty and distress throughout the country
- (b) Rise of prices and fall of wages—chiefly owing to the debasement of the coinage
- (c) The expenditure of the Court four times as great as in Henry VIII's time, though the king was a mere boy
- (d) The Crown lands were freely parted with by the Protector to their personal friends and supporters

7 The Reformation—With or without the help of powerful princes, the progress of the New Opinions and the New Learning was rapid. But the idea of toleration was not at all understood. Both sides believed that it was necessary to punish or even to burn a man's body to save his soul, and "the toleration of heresy," says Sir James Mackintosh, "was deemed by men of all persuasions to be as unreasonable as it would now be thought to propose the impunity of murder." Accordingly, both sides persecuted and executed, when they had the chance and the power—Edward is said to have been a "diligent, docile, gentle, and sprightly boy," but it must not be forgotten that he was a Tudor. The name always carries with it the idea of a certain amount of cold bloodedness, and we need not therefore be amazed when we find the young king noting in his journal the executions of his two uncles, Sudeley and Somerset, as "matters of ordinary news, without a single expression of natural feeling." In fact, his counsellors had trained him to stifle his affections, and to make everything second to the business of the State.—The Prayer-Book of the Church of England was compiled by Cranmer, who took

the old Latin services as his foundation, and translated them into his own sweet and pure English. Many Grammar Schools were founded, and the promotion of education is certainly one of the merits of Edward's government

8 The Work of Parliament—Parliament was, in the reign of Edward VI, merely the instrument for recording and passing the intentions and decisions of the Council of Regency, and more especially, of the two heads of this Council, the Lord Protectors, Somerset and Northumberland. It passed very severe Acts against vagrancy, though it entirely failed to remove the causes which produced the poverty and distress that everywhere prevailed. The two Acts of Uniformity (1549 and 1552), which were passed to enforce the use of the First and the Second Prayer-Books, proved to be the forging of legal instruments of intolerance, which were destined for many years to bring misery upon generations of thoughtful Englishmen. On the other hand, Somerset induced Parliament to repeal the Statute regarding the validity of royal proclamations, to repeal also the Statute of the Six Articles, and to wipe out of the Statute-book the hideous laws, made by Henry VIII and Cromwell, regarding felonies and treasons.

(i) It was the suppression of the monastic houses that produced so many beggars and vagrants.

(ii) The Parliament of 1552 passed an Act that no one should be convicted of treason without the evidence of at least two witnesses, both of whom should appear for cross-examination.

9 Great Men.—The two most prominent men in the reign of Edward VI are Somerset and Northumberland. Both were ambitious, and both favoured the New Opinions. But both, at the same time, sought merely to make the New Opinions a means of carrying them into power and keeping them there. The most distinguished ecclesiastic is Thomas Cranmer, whom Henry VIII created Archbishop of Canterbury. He favoured the reforming party. On the opposite side were two eminent prelates—Gardiner, bishop of Winchester, and Bonner, bishop of London, who were steadfast to the Old religion.

10 Social Facts—This reign is remarkable for the number of good grammar-schools which were founded out of the moneys obtained from the monasteries, chantries, and guilds that were put an

end to Many of these schools still go by the name of King Edward VI's Grammar Schools, and perhaps the most famous of them all is Christ's Hospital, in London The grape-vine is said to have been introduced into England in 1552, and, as the climate of England was at that time much warmer than it now is, the vine seems to have flourished in a great many parts of the south and west

(i) Grammar Schools were founded at Birmingham, Maldon, Shrewsbury, Tunbridge, Kings Norton, Chelmsford, Norwich, etc That at Birmingham is probably the most successful at the present time, as it has grown with the growth and wealth of the city, and has now developed into six excellent schools—for girls as well as for boys

(ii) Many suburbs of towns in the south still have the name of Vineyard At Hatfield—the seat of Lord Salisbury, the gardens contained 1400 standard vines two centuries ago now there is not one

11 Scotland, 1542-1554—During the minority of Mary Stuart, James Hamilton, Earl of Arran, acted as regent, though the infant queen was left in charge of her mother, Mary of Guise and Lorraine A treaty had been formed with England for the marriage of Mary to the young Prince Edward, but the treaty was broken by the Regent and the mother In consequence, war was declared at Edinburgh by an English herald, and the Earl of Hertford (after Duke of Somerset) landed an English army at Granton, near Edinburgh He sacked Leith and set fire to Edinburgh, burned the towns on the opposite coast of Fife, and then made his way to the southern border, leaving behind him a broad band of wasted country, slaughtered Scotchmen, and smoking villages This was in 1544 Next year he came again at harvest-time, laid towns, manor-houses, churches, and about three hundred villages in ashes, and left in ruins the Abbeys of Kelso, Melrose, Dryburgh, Roxburgh, and Coldstream In 1547 he made a third appearance, and defeated the Scotch, as has been said, at the Battle of Pinkie The French sent help, but the English were not driven out of the country until the year 1550 Even those Scotchmen who favoured the English alliance and the English marriage felt angry and ashamed, for, as the Earl of Huntly said, "Thof¹ they likit the marriage, they were na muckle² pleased with the manner of wooing"—In 1546 Cardinal Beaton was murdered in his Castle of St Andrews by a number of the followers of the martyred George

¹ Though

² Not much

Wishart In 1554 Mary of Guise was made Regent of Scotland After the marriage of Mary Stuart with the Dauphin,¹ the crown of Scotland was offered to him, when he became King of France, under the title of Francis II, in 1559 This feeble king died six months after, but for that time the two countries of France and Scotland were really united under one crown — The leaven of religious reform was working in Scotland also with great strength, and its influence with all classes of the people was much greater than in England ^{than} ^{cha} ^{for}

SHORT CHRONOLOGY AND SUMMARY OF EDWARD VI'S REIGN

1547	Edward VI. succeeds Duke of Somerset Protector Battle of Pinkie	1552	Execution of Somerset Second Prayer Book with Act of Uniformity
1549	First Prayer Book with Act of Uniformity Earl of Warwick Protector	1553	Edward signs a will in favour of Lady Jane Grey Death of Edward VI

IMPORTANT CONTEMPORARY EVENTS

1547	Death of Francis I of France He is succeeded by Henry II	1548	Mary, the young Queen of Scots, is sent to France
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¹ This was the title of the eldest son of the kings of France, from his crest which was a *dolphin*.

CHAPTER IV

MARY

Born 1516 Succeeded (at the age of 37) in 1553 Died 1558
Reigned 5 years

MARY TUDOR, the only surviving child of Henry VIII and Katharine of Arragon, was born at Greenwich on the 18th of February 1516. She was carefully educated, and wrote rather well. She was legitimatised by the statute of January 1534, and restored to her rights, January 1544. She married, in 1554, Philip II of Spain, the son of Charles V King of Spain and the Netherlands, and Emperor of Germany, but Philip received no share in the government of England. She died in 1558, without children.

CONTEMPORARY SOVEREIGNS

SCOTLAND
MARY to 1567

FRANCE
HENRY II to 1559

SPAIN
CHARLES V to 1556
PHILIP II

1 Mary, 1553-1558 —The Lady Jane was proclaimed in London, and Mary was proclaimed in Norfolk, where she had taken refuge with the Howards, who had always been and are staunch Catholics. Northumberland left London with a small force of 10,000 men to seize the person of Mary, but, as he left the city, the people pressed around him with black looks and sullen faces, and the duke remarked to a friend "The people press to see us, but no man sayeth, 'God speed you'." On the contrary, high and low ran to the standard of Queen Mary, and among the first to join her were the crews of two ships that had been stationed on the coast to prevent her escape. The Council in London proclaimed Mary queen, and sent an order to Northumberland to disarm. He received the order at Cambridge, at once proceeded to proclaim her himself at the Cross there, and was among the most eager to throw up his cap and to call for three cheers

for the new sovereign It did not help him Mary, a few days after, entered London in triumph

2 **Lady Jane Grey**—The young girl Jane Grey, Mary's unwilling rival, was only sixteen, beautiful, amiable, of the sweetest and most charming disposition and manners, and wonderfully accomplished and even learned for she had received her education along with the young King Edward She, at any rate, had no desire for a crown, her greatest delight was to read Plato in the window corner of a quiet library, and when her father-in-law and four other lords knelt before her as their queen, and pressed her to accept the crown, she shrieked, sank upon the ground, and declared her utter unfitness and unreadiness to accept such a position On the 7th of July she was proclaimed, on the 17th she was in the Tower Thus her "reign" lasted only nine days The Duke of Northumberland was beheaded, but Lady Jane and her husband were only kept in the Tower, where their confinement was not at all rigorous They were allowed to walk in the queen's garden, and to receive visitors, and it is probable that their lives would have been spared had it not been for after events—As the Duke of Northumberland had suddenly veered round in politics when he proclaimed Mary at Cambridge, so at his execution he confessed, to the dismay of his Protestant friends, that he died an adherent of the ancient faith

(i) Jane (*Jana Regina*, as a contemporary chronicler called her) actually "reigned" from the 7th to the 17th of July 1553 Northumberland received from her a commission for the lieutenancy of the army which was signed JANE THE QUEEN.

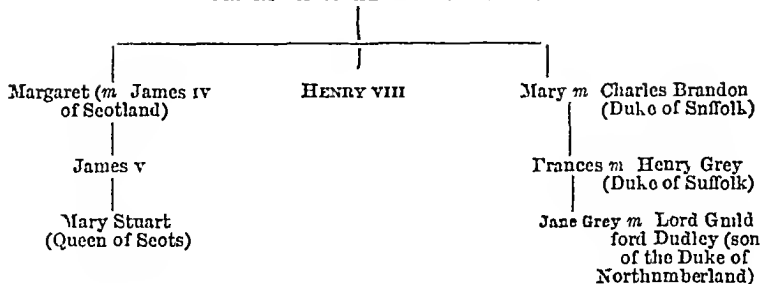
(ii) On her passage from Whitehall to the Tower by water, the day of her proclamation, she was received by the people in blank silence The rumour ran that the young king had come to his death by poison "He was poisoned, everybody says" "The ragged bear [Northumberland] is glad of the king's death," was whispered by some

(iii) "They have made this poor young lady but a Twelfth Day Queen," was the remark of the French Ambassador

(iv) Northumberland said to Sir Anthony Brown that "he certainly thought best of the old religion, but, seeing a new one begun, he would go forward"—"Thus, with a lie upon his lips, he passed from the world, perhaps the worst and most simply selfish statesman who had ever ruled England"—FRANK BRIGHT

GENEALOGY OF LADY JANE GREY

HENRY VII *m* ELIZABETH OF YORK.



(i) One clause in Henry VIII's will provided that, if all his children should die without issue, the crown should go to the descendants of his *younger* sister Mary, who had married the Duke of Suffolk. Thus he passed over the descendants of his *elder* sister Margaret, who now filled the throne of Scotland.

(ii) Another clause in the will left the crown to Frances, Duchess of Suffolk—the mother of Jane, but she was quite willing to give way to her daughter.

(iii) Henry had not the smallest right, either in law or in the tradition of the constitution, to "leave the crown," but he was practically a despotic sovereign.

3 The Spanish Marriage—Mary was now thirty-seven. "No English sovereign," says Mr. Froude, "ever ascended the English throne with larger popularity than this lady." This love and popularity she soon lost, and the history of her reign is little more than the history of that loss—She restored the deprived bishops to their sees, Gardiner came back to Winchester, and Bonner to London, the foreign-preachers were expelled the kingdom, and Mass was again said in all the churches. "London alone remained true to Protestantism." But the nation was not offended with all this, for it was hardly Protestant at heart, what the nation did fear and detest was a foreign husband, and, above all, a dark Spanish tyrant and bigot. No one liked the Spanish marriage, most regarded it with dread and dislike. But the queen had set her heart on Philip, the son of the great Charles V, and men began to dread, and not without reason, that they would see the officers of the Inquisition in the streets of London, and that England would become a province of Spain.

(i) Mary's clemency towards those who had taken up arms against her was altogether remarkable. She released from prison Lady Jane's father, Suffolk, and had difficulty even in signing the warrant for the execution of Northumberland. Lady

Jane herself she fully meant to spare, and did spare till after Wyatt's formidable insurrection'—*Ency Brit*

(ii) "You know in what state all countries are where Spaniards bear any rule Sicily, Naples, Lombardy, Sienna, when they had it, and all other places where they have had any authority, do you not know how they are oppressed by the Spaniards? in what a bondage and misery they live? Even so must you look to be in England."
—*Montmorency* (quoted by Knight)

(iii) Another reason why Mary was eager for this marriage was the political one—that she might be strengthened against the claims of Mary Stuart to the crown of England—Mary Stuart, who was at that time the wife of the Dauphin of France

4 Rebellions and their Result—Risings accordingly took place in the West, and in the East, and in the Midland Counties of England Sir Thomas Wyatt, a gentleman of Kent, put himself at the head of a large body of Kentish men and marched upon London, announcing that he wished to "save his country from Spanish fleas and Spanish slavery" The old Duke of Norfolk, now eighty, who had been in prison since Henry the Eighth's time, was sent against Wyatt, but his force, exclaiming, "A Wyatt! a Wyatt! We are all Englishmen!" went over to the side of the insurgents Wyatt was unable to force London Bridge, and, after a weary march round by Kingston, he fought his way to the Temple Bar, and crying, "I have kept touch," sank exhausted at the barred and bolted gate—Mary showed the usual cool courage of the Tudors, she made a brave speech to the citizens of London, concluding with "Stand fast against these rebels and fear them not, for I assure you I fear them nothing at all!" The Duke of Suffolk also raised the standard of rebellion in favour of his daughter JANE at Leicester, but nothing succeeded, and Suffolk and Wyatt were taken and put to death The two young persons, Lady Jane and her husband, who had had no hand in this attempt, and not a particle of sympathy with it, had also to suffer for it The Spanish ambassador Renard saw his opportunity, and pressed Mary hard for their execution, there was no safety for any one, he said, till these claimants for the crown were out of the way He urged that Elizabeth also should be put to death. As, however, no evidence could be found against her, in spite of persistent endeavours to discover it, she was only placed in confinement at Woodstock, but it was determined that Lady Jane and her young husband should die Young Lord Dudley suffered first, and, as the poor girl walked to the block, she had to step over the blood which

flowed across her path from the headless body of her dead husband. She bent her head meekly upon the block, and paid the penalty of noble birth, high rank, and the greedy ambition of her friends.

Mary Six months after, Mary was married to Philip at Win-
marries chester. Parliament, however, would not permit him to
Phillip be crowned King of England, nor would it consent that
of Spain he should succeed Mary if she should die childless. Mary
1554 was eleven years older than her husband.

(i) Those who dreaded the coming of the King of Spain agreed to have a simul-
 tancons rising in Devonshire, on the marches of Wales in the Midlands, and in Kent
 they intended to proclaim Elizabeth, to marry her to Lord Courtenay, and to place
 both on the throne.

(ii) Other executions followed those of Wyatt, Lady Jane, and her husband. On
 that same day was made at every gate in London, a new pair of gallows,—two pair in
 Cheapside, two pair in Fleet Street one pair in Holborn.

(iii) Parliament in accepting Phillip as the husband of Mary laid down these con-
 ditions (a) that Mary was to be sole sovereign (b) that she was never to go abroad
 and (c) that she was not to allow England to be drawn into foreign wars by Phillip.

5 **The Reconciliation**—Mary was an ardent Roman Catholic, and the second dearest wish of her heart was to see England reconciled with the Pope. Her dearest wish was to have a son. The first step towards the reconciliation with the Holy See was to reverse the attainder of Cardinal Pole. This was done, and the Pope appointed him his Legate to England. He came up the Thames "with a full tide" in the brilliant state and elaborate splendour of a Cardinal Prince of the Church, a golden cross gleamed at the prow of his barge. He came as a shepherd and a father. He came to take back the strayed and lost country into the arms of the Church. On the 30th of November 1554 the Lords and the Commons of England walked to Whitehall, knelt down before Cardinal Pole, and received from him upon their knees a gracious absolution for the realm from its sins of heresy and schism. The whole of the statutes—nineteen in number—that had been directed since 1528 against the power of Rome, were swept away by one single act. But Parliament would not give up the Church lands which were held by the most powerful subjects of the Crown, and the Cardinal declared that he had the power to remit this claim. He only appealed to the conscience of the holders. But not a soul in England answered this appeal, they

stuck to their ill-gotten gains All—except Mary herself, who gave up the tenths, the first-fruits, and the whole of the Church property that had passed into her hands

(i) ' Polo arrived at Gravesend full of gladness, slept there for one night, and then embarked in the royal barge, all decked with purple, to meet the Queen Though it was the 24th of November, the sky was clear and the sun bright the Italian suite of the Cardinal were agreeably surprised in the aspect of the Thames, broad, silvery, undefiled, and bordered by the stately houses and trim gardens of the nobility and great merchants, while hosts of boats of all sizes attended the Procession'—
YONGE'S CAMEOS (Fourth Series)

(ii) Tennyson in his play of "Queen Mary, makes CARDINAL POLE say

' Our silver cross sparkled before the prow,
The ripples twinkled at their diamond-dance,
The boats that followed, were as glowing gay
As regal gardens, and your flocks of swans,
As fair and white as angels, and your shores
Wore in mine eyes the green of Paradise
My foreign friends, who dream'd us blanketed
In ever closing fog, were much amazed
To find as fair a sun as might have flash'd
Upon their Lake of Garda, fire the Thames,
Our voyage by sea was all but miracle,
And here the river flowing from the sea,
Not toward it (for they thought not of our tides),
Seem'd as a happy miracle to make glide—
In quiet—home your banish'd countryman

(iii) There were in all 40,000 persons in possession of portions of the Church lands

(iv) Cardinal Pole's attainder was reversed by Parliament.

6 The Marian Persecution—Mary was strongly attached to her mother and to the religion of her mother, she was eager to bring back the nation from its apostasy and schism, and she thought persecution a righteous and a lawful weapon The Lollard statutes of Henry iv and Henry v against heretics were revived, and it was now the turn of the extreme Roman Catholics The nation and clergy and the party in power were determined to use their position and their victory Gardiner, now Lord Chancellor, was the mainspring of the persecution that followed, though Bonner, the Bishop of London, has received much of the discredit of it The fires of Smithfield were hardly ever out More than a thousand married clergymen were driven from their churches, many fled to Frankfort and Geneva, and among them Fox, the author of the *Book of Martyrs*, and Myles

Coverdale, a translator of the Bible John Rogers, a canon of St Paul's, and one of the translators of the Bible, was the first to suffer, and, by the end of Mary's reign, nearly three hundred men, women, and children, had been burnt alive for their religious beliefs They were mostly poor working people, and the only persons of any distinction who suffered were the five prelates, Cranmer, Ridley, Latimer, Hooper, and Ferrars The teachers of Protestantism were burnt in the places where they had taught, so that their pupils and followers might be struck with terror Ridley and Latimer suffered at Oxford, and Latimer, an old man of eighty, strove his best to encourage his depressed brother Ridley "Be of good cheer, Master Ridley," he cried, "we shall this day light a candle in England that all the power of Rome may not put out" When Gardiner died, the persecuting energy of the bishops relaxed, but "rattling letters" from Mary quickened their dying zeal, and then the fires of persecution blazed merrily up once more.

(i) About three hundred victims were put to death by burning in the three years of the persecution

(ii) "The persecution had sunk now from bishops and priests to the people itself The sufferers were sent in batches to the flames In a single day thirteen victims, two of them women, were burnt at Stratford le Bow Seventy three Protestants of Colechester were dragged through the streets of London, tied to a single rope A new commission for the suppression of heresy was exempted by royal authority from all restrictions of law which fettered its activity —GREEN

(iii) The best way to propagate a creed is to persecute as thoroughly and as bitterly as possible those who believe in it. It was the 'legal persecutions of Queen Mary a time that promoted the spread of Protestantism But it must not be forgotten that neither side understood the true meaning and value of toleration The Protestants of the sixteenth century were as keen in persecution, when their own opportunity came, as the Catholics, Cranmer as severe as Gardiner

7 The Execution of Cranmer —Archbishop Cranmer was the next victim selected. It was a daring thing to think of burning the Archbishop of Canterbury—the Primate of all England But it was he who had discovered that Henry had been illegally married to the mother of Mary, it was he who had plotted with Northumberland to shut out Mary from the throne, it was he who had compiled the English Liturgy to displace the Mass He was basely tempted with promises of life if he recanted—promises which were not intended to be kept, and six times did he recant But at last he knew that his life

would not be spared. and then he spurned away all false compliances and all shrinking cowardice, and his soul, standing face to face with death, rose to the high level of the dread occasion. He was brought on his way to the stake, to St. Mary's, Oxford, to repeat his recantation in the hearing of the people, but he turned upon his persecutors, and with head uplifted and eyes lighted with indignation, spoke slowly and clearly the solemn words "Here I now renounce and refuse all these things as written by my hand contrary to the truth which I thought in my heart, and written for fear of death to save my life if it might be. And, forasmuch as my hand offended in writing contrary to my heart, my hand therefore shall be the first punished, for if I come to the fire, it shall be the first burnt." When he came to the stake, he held his right hand steadily in the flame till it was consumed, and never stirred or cried. Tennyson thus describes the scene —

"Then Cranmer lifted his left hand to heaven,
And thrust his right into the bitter flame
And crying, in an deep voice, more than once,
'This hate offends—his un-worthy hand'
So held it 'till it all was burned, before
The flame had reached his body. I stood near—
Marked him—he never uttered word of pain
He never stirred or winced, but, like a statue,
Famously in the greatness of the flame,
Gave up the ghost."

The death of Cranmer was the darkest deed of the Marian Persecution, and, as an English peasant woman expressed it, "the burning of the Archbishop burned the Pope out of the land for ever and ever"—Cardinal Pole was now the new Archbishop of Canterbury, and he held a visitation of the Universities, when he ordered all English Bibles and heretical books to be burned and the bodies of the foreign preachers of King Edward's time to be taken out of their graves and reduced to ashes.

(i) REGINALD POLE was the son of Margaret, daughter of the Duke of Clarence, who was brother to Edward IV. He opposed the divorce of Katherine, and had to leave the country. He retired to Italy, became a reformer of the Catholic Church, and was nearly gaining the Papal chair. He was the leading representative of English Catholicism in Europe. He was attracted by Henry VIII.'s request, at the same time that his mother, the Countess of Salisbury, was executed. This attraction was reversed in the reign of Mary, when he was made Papal Legate and Archbishop of Canterbury, in the room of Cranmer.

(ii) The persecutors lost to Mary "the hearts of twenty thousand who were rank Papists within twelve months."

8 The Loss of Calais—Philip did not love Mary. She was older than he,—a thin, wizened, sickly little woman, somewhat sour in temper, and not very well adapted to make a man happy. He had married her to suit his father's policy. He stayed with her a year, and then left her never to return,—except for a short visit of a few months, to urge the queen to join him in the war with France. Her consent was easily obtained, but the result was a disaster. It is true that the Spanish troops gained the victory of St-Quentin, but the English forces did not arrive till after the battle. Then the French, on their part, succeeded in taking Calais, which had been in our hands for two hundred years.—It was the custom of the English Government to withdraw most of their troops from Calais in autumn, for the sake of economy. The Duke of Guise took advantage of this, and appeared in midwinter before the town. He had marched his army across the frozen swamp, and the town surrendered in eight days. Only one man lost his life in the siege. Guisnes soon followed,

Loss of Calais 1558 and England in 1558 had not an inch of ground in French territory. Mary was struck to the heart. Her husband had deserted her—she had never had his love, she had lost the love of her people, which she once had, and now this last blow finished her. “When I die,” she said, “Calais will be found written on my heart” And so the sad, weary, broken life went out, and on the 17th of November 1558, she left only a soiled memory and a humiliated country to her people of England. Twenty-four hours after, Cardinal Pole followed her, and with these two departed the last shred of the power of Rome in this country.

(i) “The slaughter of St-Quentin was dreadful. The best blood of France flowed like water.”

(ii) After the departure of Philip, and the loss of Calais, Mary would sit on the ground, speechless for hours, “with both her knees drawn upward to her chin. Tennyson makes her say

“Women, when I am dead,
Open my heart, and there you will find written
Two names, Philip and Calais.”

(iii) “The last remnant of the continental dominions of the Plantagenets was gone. Measured by substantial value, the loss of Calais was a gain. English princes were never again to lay claim to the Crown of France, and the possession of a fortress on French soil was a perpetual irritation. But Calais was called ‘the brightest jewel in the English crown.’ A jewel it was, useless, costly, but dearly prized. If Spain should rise suddenly in her ancient strength, and tear Gibraltar from us, our mortifi-

cation would be faint compared to the anguish of humiliated pride with which the loss of Calais distracted the subjects of Queen Mary.—FROUDE.

(iv) The iron of fate brought about two ridiculous events at the close of Mary's reign. (a) Pope Paul IV removed Cardinal Pole from his post of Legate on the ground of unorthodoxy—and Pole thought himself the most orthodox of Catholics, (b) Mary had to forbid the landing of the Pope's letters—just as her father Henry did.

9 Scotland.—During the last two reigns the foreign policy of Scotland had been a very simple one. It was merely to keep open some cause of annoyance and quarrel with England, and to preserve the closest alliance with France. The country had from the middle of the fifteenth to the middle of the sixteenth century, been in a perpetual state of turmoil, civil broil, and foreign war, and it is worthy of notice, that of the five Jameses who in turn wore the crown, four died violent deaths, and two of them by the hands of assassins who were their own countrymen and their own subjects.

(i) Mary, Queen of Scots, at the age of fifteen, married the Dauphin of France at Paris, on the 24th of April 1558. The Gueses tried to have the crown and sceptre of Scotland brought to Paris. On the death of Queen Mary of England, Mary, Queen of Scots assumed the title of Queen of England.

(ii) The friends of reform in Scotland entered, in 1557, into a bond or agreement (or *Bond of Union*) to stand by each other, which was called the *First Covenant*. In it they renounced the authority of the Pope, and promised to use the English Bible and the Prayer Book of Edward VI. The barons who signed it henceforth called themselves *Lords of the Congregation*. The burning of Walter Mill an aged priest who had adopted the reformed belief, and who was put to death at St. Andrews in 1558, was the first signal for action.

10 The Work of Parliament.—Once more the Parliament of England, as in the time of Henry VIII, made itself the mere servant and recorder of the decisions arrived at by the sovereign and her nearest advisers. In 1553—the first year of Queen Mary's reign, all the laws relating to religion that had been passed in Edward VI's time, were annulled by a subservient Parliament. In the following year, the whole Parliament—the Lords and Commons of England—went on their knees to Pole, the Cardinal-Legate, and, after that unprecedented conduct, proceeded to repeal all the statutes that had been passed against the Pope since the twentieth year of Henry VIII. Not a single member of Parliament, however, even dreamt of giving back a single acre of the monastic lands which, by the aid of their predecessors, had been wrested from the religious houses of England.

Next year, in 1555, Parliament passed "an Act for the renewing of three statutes made for the punishment of Heresies," in other words, they re-enacted the persecuting statutes of Henry iv and Henry v against the Lollards. These acts were to "be revived and be in full force, strength, and effect, to all intents, constructions, and purposes, for ever." In spite of all this, the power and influence of the House of Commons seem to have been growing, and the evidence for this is to be found in the "increasing anxiety of the Court to obtain favourable elections."

11 Great Men—The term *great* can hardly be applied with propriety to any of the statesmen or ecclesiastics of Mary's reign. Among the most distinguished men were the four martyred bishops, **Cranmer**, archbishop of Canterbury, **Hooper**, bishop of Gloucester, **Ridley**, bishop of London, and **Latimer**, bishop of Worcester. On the opposite side were **Gardiner**, bishop of Winchester and Lord-Chancellor of the realm, and **Bonner**, bishop of London. Gardiner was the ablest and most trusted counsellor of the much distressed Queen Mary. **Sir Thomas Wyatt** was the brave and loyal leader of the revolt in Kent in favour of Elizabeth and in opposition to the Spanish marriage. Against him was **Renard**, the ambassador of Charles v, whose influence was very powerful when Mary was in love with Philip. Last of all comes, perhaps, the greatest of them all, **Cardinal Pole**, the most distinguished English ecclesiastic in Europe, and (as grandson of the Duke of Clarence) a Prince, not only of the church, but of the blood royal.

12 Social Facts—England, during this reign, was not only troubled by religious persecutions, but frequently visited by the Pestilence. Indeed, the Pestilence was never really absent, for the dirty and slovenly habits of the people, the want of fresh air and fresh water, and the general insanitary condition of the houses and towns, presented to it numerous places where it could lurk and brood—always ready to come out and to assume a virulent and epidemic form—For the first time in the history of England the law took cognisance of the state of the highways, and Parliament passed an Act which placed upon each parish the duty of repairing the roads in it—During this reign, the debasement of coin had been stopped, and the currency improved, and, with this improvement in the currency,

trade revived and new enterprises were attempted. Thus trade was opened with Persia and Russia, and the "Russia Company" was established and incorporated in 1554. On the other hand, the growth of commerce was to some extent checked by the granting of monopolies, by a tax put upon exported cloths and another tax on imported French wines. These taxes were imposed by Mary's Private Council, without the sanction of Parliament.

Mary and her advisers showed their contempt for the law of the country not only in imposing taxes and customs duties, but in other things also. For example (a) Jurymen were sent to prison if they returned a verdict against the wish of the Judge. (b) M.P.s were sent to prison for opposing the measures of the Government. (c) Forced loans were levied on wealthy persons.

SHORT CHRONOLOGY AND SUMMARY OF MARY'S REIGN

1553	(a) Proclamation of Queen Jane (b) Execution of Northumberland (c) Laws regarding religion of previous reign annulled	1556	(a) Cranmer burnt (b) Pole, Archbishop of Canterbury
1554	(a) Wyatt's Rebellion (b) Execution of Lady Jane Grey (c) Mary marries Philip, son of Charles V (d) The Pope once more the Head of the Church of England	1557	(a) War with France. Battle of St Quentin (b) The First Covenant signed at Edinburgh
1555	The Lollard Statutes revived	1558	(a) Calais taken. (b) Death of Mary (c) Death of Cardinal Pole (d) Mary, Queen of Scots, marries the Dauphin of France

IMPORTANT CONTEMPORARY EVENTS

1552	Treaty of Passau (on the Danube) secures toleration for Protestants in Germany	1556	(b) Charles V abdicates (c) Ferdinand I succeeds him in the German Empire
1555	The Religious Peace of Augsburg confirms this toleration		(d) Philip II (the husband of Mary) succeeds him in Spain, Naples, and Sicily
1556	(a) The Irish Parliament repeals the Act of Supremacy		

CHAPTER V

ELIZABETH

born 1533 Succeeded (at the age of 25) in 1558 Died 1603

Reigned 45 years

ELIZABETH TUDOR was born at Greenwich on the 7th of September 1533. She was the only child of Henry VIII and Anne Boleyn. Along with her half sister Mary, she was declared illegitimate after her father's marriage with Jane Seymour. She was well educated and knew Latin, French, Italian, and she was also skilled in music. She had more than ten offers of marriage ("half the young princes of Europe sought her hand"), her most distinguished suitor being Philip II, the widower of her half sister Mary, who most favoured the French Duke of Alençon—"a hideous dwarf, with a pock marked face, a double nose, a yellow skin, whom she used to call her *petite grenouille*." During Mary's reign, she lived mostly at Hatfield (the residence of the Cecils), studying Greek, Latin, and Italian. She came to the throne in 1558. Her chief difficulty during her reign was the existence of Mary Queen of Scots: the chief event the defeat of the Armada. She found herself obliged, as a matter of policy, to assist the Huguenots in France, and the Protestants in the Netherlands. She died at Richmond in her seventieth year, on the 24th of March 1603.

- (a) Mary Queen of Scots as the great granddaughter of Henry VII had a valid title to the throne of England. Had she succeeded when wife of the King of France she would have united the three crowns of France, England and Scotland. This prospect alarmed Philip of Spain and he supported Elizabeth.
- (b) The Pope regarded Mary as the legitimate heir for the marriage of Anne Boleyn. Elizabeth's mother had never been valid. He wished Elizabeth to submit her claims to the throne to arbitration.

CONTEMPORARY SOVEREIGNS

SCOTLAND	FRANCE	SPAIN
MARY to 1567	FRANCIS II to 1560	PHILIP II to 1598
JAMES VI	CHARLES IX to 1574	
	HENRY III to 1589	PHILIP III to 1621
	HENRY IV to 1610	

Elizabeth, 1558-1603 — Elizabeth was only five-and-twenty when she took upon her shoulders the troubles and affairs of the state. She had inherited some portion of her mother's beauty and

her father's fresh complexion, and she had clear, bright, quick eyes. Her manners were frank, jovial, and hearty—sometimes even coarse, she would give one courtier a box on the ear, and attack another with the strong and high-flavoured language of a fishwife. She possessed all the self-confidence, the dauntless courage, along with the hardness and cruelty of the Tudor family, and, while she flirted and coquetted among her courtiers, the moment she took her seat at the Council-table she became as hard and cold as steel—as clear-sighted and strong-willed as the oldest statesman at the board. Indeed, during the forty-five years of her reign, she showed herself in politics a match for every monarch and statesman in Europe. She had an unerring eye for an able man, and she chose wise and careful advisers, the chief of whom were William Cecil (afterwards Lord Burleigh) and Francis Walsingham.

(i) Elizabeth was at Hatfield when the news of her sister's death and of her own accession was brought to her. She rose, and exclaimed "This is the Lord's doing, and it is marvellous in our eyes! Most of the English Catholics looked upon Elizabeth as illegitimate, and on Mary Queen of Scots as the rightful heir. Only one bishop—the Bishop of Lincoln—could be got to crown her

(ii) Cecil was Treasurer, and Walsingham Secretary of State. For forty years Cecil possessed the confidence of the Queen—was "the oracle she consulted on every emergency, and whose answers she generally obeyed." "This judgment I have of you, Elizabeth said to Cecil, "that you will not be corrupted with any manner of gifts, and that you will be faithful to the State, and that without respect to my private will you will give me that counsel which you think best."

Cecil was to Queen Elizabeth what Bismarck was to the Emperor William

(iii) Walsingham was not a personal favourite with Elizabeth. "his religious zeal drew him all his life towards Puritanism"

2 The State of the Country—The fortunes of England were at the lowest ebb. The country felt sore and heavy at the loss of Calais, and was suffering under the troubles and misgovernment of the late reign, while Protestantism, which had always been attacked either with fire or with exile, had nursed itself into a white heat of anger in its far-off home in Geneva. Spain and France were hostile to England, and Scotland was likewise an open enemy. But Elizabeth gradually carried the country in safety through all these dangers—The Supremacy of the Crown over the Church was restored, but Mary's bishops refused to recognise it, and most of them were deposed, some were put in prison, Bonner, indeed, for the

rest of his life An Act of Uniformity was passed which forbade the use of any but the second Prayer-book of Edward, and fines were imposed on those who did not go to church on Sundays and holidays. The Lord's Prayer, the Creed, the Ten Commandments, and the Litany were ordered to be said or sung in English. Two parties resisted these measures—the Roman Catholics on the one side, and the extreme Protestants on the other. The Roman Catholics left the country, and were constantly plotting against the Government, some of them even against the life of Elizabeth, the extreme Protestants (or *Puritans*, as they called themselves) took to worshipping in houses or private chapels of their own. A court, called the High Commission Court, was now established to enforce the Act of Uniformity and to bring these Puritans to their senses, it was armed with power to punish with fines and imprisonment heresies, unlicensed preaching, and absence from church.

(i) All the Bishops, with two exceptions, declined to take the Oath of Supremacy to Elizabeth. They were driven from their sees. Matthew Parker was made Archbishop of Canterbury. The dispossessed bishops were of course secret enemies of Elizabeth's Government.

(ii) The Pope—Pius IV—offered to give his sanction to the English Prayer Book, if his supremacy were recognised. But the middle classes of England were strongly in favour of Protestantism.

(iii) An Act of Uniformity ordered that the amended Prayer book should be used in all the churches, and the fine for not attending church was one shilling—nearly equal to ten shillings at the present time. Edward VI's forty-two articles were reduced to thirty-nine.

(iv) The Puritan Party objected to the surplice, to kneeling at the sacrament, to the sign of the cross in baptism, the use of the ring in marriage, the government by bishops, the use of organs, etc. etc.

3 Elizabeth and the Church—The young queen, with that instinct for statesmanship which was innate in all the Tudors, took up a middle position between the Catholics and the Protestants. She wished the Church of England to be the Church of the English people. For this reason, the service was to be read in English, and the English translation of the Bible was to be allowed to circulate freely. But Elizabeth was more stern in her resolution to uphold the Act of Supremacy than she was in regard to the Act of Uniformity. It was not until numerous Catholic plots, in connection with Mary Queen of Scots and her succession to the throne of England, com-

pelled her to take severe measures, that we find her employing persecution in favour of religion. Commissioners were from time to time appointed to carry out the Acts of Supremacy and Uniformity, and, in the year 1583, the Court of High Commission, a tribunal fraught with danger to the liberties of the subject, was made permanent. About half the Commissioners in this Court were High Com-
clergymen and bishops. Both Catholics and Puritans were mission
persecuted, the former for denying the supremacy of the Court made
queen, the latter for disobeying the Act of Uniformity, permanent
1583
which weighed heavily on their consciences as private persons

(i) The Court of High Commission was dangerous to the liberties of the subject for two reasons: (i) the crime of "heresy" was vague and undefinable, (ii) the mode of taking evidence in this Court was "contrary to all the most simple ideas of justice and equity." Hume says its "jurisdiction was more terrible than that of the Star Chamber."

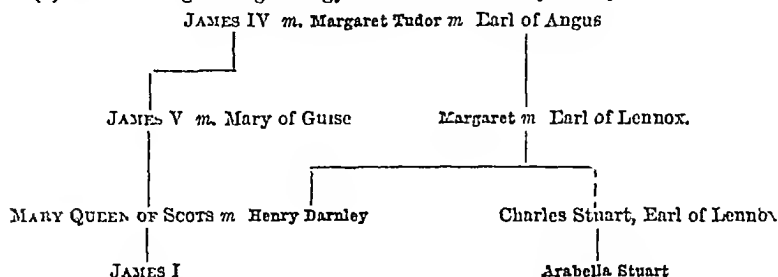
(ii) The Romanist Nonconformists were called Recusants, the Protestant Sectarians were called Puritans. The Romanists "set up the authority of a foreign power as antagonistic to the power of the Queen of England." The Puritans placed the authority of the Bible—that is, of their own interpretation of the Bible—above that of Ecclesiastical Courts. Hence the nonconformity of the Romanists was regarded as a political offence, and they were handed over to the civil power. The Puritans and Sectaries were delivered to the Bishops and the Ecclesiastical Courts.

4. **Foreign Affairs**—Philip of Spain, who had offered his hand to Elizabeth, was the head of the great Catholic party abroad, France was engaged in a life-and-death struggle with the Huguenots (as the French Protestants called themselves), but the chief danger to Elizabeth seemed to come from the neighbouring kingdom of Scotland. Mary Stuart, as the great-granddaughter of Henry VIII, had taken upon herself the style and title of Queen of England, and had quartered the English arms with her own. Elizabeth sided with the Protestants abroad, the Netherlanders had gone so far as to offer her their crown, and in 1562 the Prince of Condé, who was the leader of the Huguenots, placed the ports of Havre and La Rochelle in the hands of the English queen. Thus, speaking broadly, Elizabeth became the head of the Protestant cause, and helped it on in France, in the Netherlands, and in Scotland, while Mary became the centre of the hopes of the Catholics—not in Scotland merely, but also in England.

(i) Mary Queen of Scots made a formal demand to be acknowledged the successor

of Queen Elizabeth. She therefore determined to ally herself openly with the English Catholic party; and this was her chief motive in marrying Henry Darnley, who was 'the first Prince of the Blood in England,' for he was the direct descendant of Margaret Tudor, the elder of Henry VIII's sisters.

(ii) The following is the genealogy of MARY and of Henry Darnley



(iii) Elizabeth's policy was to keep on good terms with both France and Spain—to play the one off against the other, and not to enter upon any matrimonial alliance that would compel her to take sides.

(iv) Elizabeth, moreover, by siding with the Huguenots of France, could keep the Catholics employed and weak.

5 Mary Stuart—When the death of Francis II left Mary a widow in France at the age of nineteen, she resolved to leave the French court and to return to her Scottish subjects and her Scottish kingdom. She was already celebrated as the most beautiful woman of her time, and a certain native sweetness and graciousness, heightened by the polish of manner she had gained in the French court, a warmth of affection, gaiety, grace, and generosity combined with her loveliness to form a charm which almost every one who approached her felt to be irresistible. Fascinating and attractive as she was in private life, she was said to be as cool and astute a politician as Elizabeth herself at the Council-board. Many of the English Roman Catholics had already, in the very commencement of Elizabeth's reign, begun to look upon Mary as the rightful queen of England. Soon after her arrival in Scotland, she married Henry Stuart, Lord Darnley. He was her cousin, and, like herself, descended from Margaret Tudor, the sister of Henry the Eighth, for Margaret had married the Earl of Angus for her second husband, and Darnley was her grandson by this marriage. Darnley was a weak, stupid, conceited, and wicked man, and, "fallen sick with vice and misery," he had come, for the sake of medical advice, to stay at a house near Edinburgh, called Kirk o' Field. This house was blown up in the dead of night with

an explosion which shook the whole city, Darnley's body was found next morning dead among the ruins, and it was generally suspected that James Hepburn, the Earl of Bothwell, incited by Mary herself, had committed the crime. A few weeks after Darnley's murder, Bothwell married Mary, and the horror of such a marriage at such a time with such a man turned from her the affections of a large number of her subjects.

(i) In 1560 Queen Elizabeth sent troops to fight along with the Scottish Protestants, and this is therefore the first time in history when the Scotch and English were allies on the field of battle. This year is also memorable for the first *General Assembly* of the Church of Scotland, held in Edinburgh, in which the Protestantism of the period was itself so intolerant as to make the saying of the Catholic Mass a capital crime.

(ii) Darnley had earned the dislike and even the hatred of his wife by his share in the murder of her private secretary Rizzio. The "Lords of the Congregation," discontented with Mary's favour of Catholicism, fled into England, and Rizzio was Mary's chief means of communication with the great Catholic Powers abroad. Rizzio was dragged from the private sitting room of the queen, where he sat at supper with her, was stabbed on the landing outside the door, and the banished Lords returned.

(iii) James VI, then a child of two, was crowned in 1567, and then carried back to his nursery. James Stuart, Earl of Murray, who had fled to France, was recalled and made regent. In 1570 he was shot from a house by James Hamilton of Bothwellhaugh. He was very popular, and was known after his death as the *Good Regent*. The Earl of Mar succeeded him as regent, and next the Earl of Morton, who showed himself very active in seizing the Church lands, in which he only imitated Lord Burleigh and Elizabeth herself.

Hamilton who bore a bitter grudge against Murray for a private injury posted himself in the upper room of a house in Linlithgow, and shot the Regent as he rode through the narrow street. Scott's 'Cadzow Castle' tells the story.

6 Mary Stuart in Prison.—Mary was thrown into prison in Lochleven Castle, and, while there, she was persuaded to sign an abdication in favour of her infant son, James VI. Escaping from Lochleven, she made for the Castle of Dumbarton, which was then the strongest fortress in the country. She was, however, intercepted at Langside by the troops of her own half-brother, the Earl of Murray, then regent of the kingdom, and she was so hemmed in that it was impossible to decline battle. She lost. Giving up all hopes of Scotland, she turned bridle, galloped without drawing rein as far as the Solway, took boat and crossed that firth, and was safe the same night in the old Castle of "merry Carlisle." This was on the 16th of May 1568. She wrote to Elizabeth, throwing herself on her protection, but Elizabeth did not

Mary Queen
of Scots in
England
1568.

want to have anything to do with her. Nothing could prevent her becoming a centre of plots and conspiracies, she was a standing danger, no power could deprive her of her quality of queen so long as she lived, and to be a centre of intrigues was indeed her unhappy and troubled fate throughout the rest of her life.

From Carlisle Mary wrote to Elizabeth asking her (a) to give assistance in restoring her to the throne of Scotland. The reply was that the charges made against Queen Mary by the Regent Murray and the Scots Lords must first of all be inquired into—(b) Mary next demanded a free passage to France. This was also declined as it was felt that the French might again interfere in the internal affairs of Scotland.

7 Plots—For more than thirty years Elizabeth was the object of plots and treasons—plots which were hatched in Spain, carried out in England, and attempted even in her own household. The Earls of Northumberland and Westmoreland raised a Roman Catholic rebellion in the north, Pope Pius v issued in 1570 a bull of deposition (in which she was called base-born, an usurper, and a heretic) against Elizabeth, which was fixed upon the house door of the English ambassador at Paris, and an enthusiast, named John Felton, posted a printed copy of this bull on the palace gate of the Bishop of London. Seminarists—that is, English priests who had been educated abroad in Roman Catholic seminaries or colleges—began in 1574 to come over to England in crowds, and to move from place to place, preaching and dispensing the sacraments, but at the same time distributing political news and hatching political plots. In the manor-houses of the Roman Catholic nobility and gentry, secret chambers were constructed for them, known afterwards as “priests’ holes,” where they often lay hid for years. When taken, they were put to the torture and frequently executed. Nearly two hundred Seminarists suffered death in this way. Philip of Spain was at the same time sending soldiers, and the Pope was sending priests, to Ireland, where a constant civil war was kept up, in 1580, a Jesuit mission to reconvert England was sent over, while Spanish agents were busy brewing new plots against the life of the queen herself.

(i) The Duke of Norfolk wished to marry Mary, Elizabeth threw him into the Tower.

(ii) The Earl of Northumberland was the head of the Percies, the Earl of Westmoreland of the Nevilles. On the failure of their rising, both lords fled into Scotland.

(iii) A terrible vengeance was taken on the lower classes, over six hundred of whom were put to death. Those of the gentry who had land were also executed, and their estates confiscated.

(iv) As the Pope's bull released all her subjects from their allegiance, and as a union of the Catholic Powers abroad was highly probable, Elizabeth felt that she might be attacked at any time either from within or from without. But, says Lingard, the Catholic historian, 'the time was gone by when the thunders of the Vatican could shake the thrones of princes'

(v) John Felton, at his execution, declared himself to be a martyr, and spoke of Queen Elizabeth as "the Pretender"

8 Sir Philip Sidney—Philip of Spain was known as early as 1585 to be preparing for an invasion of England, and Elizabeth had made an attempt to give him a check in the Netherlands, where the Earl of Leicester, her chief favourite, was in command of an English army. He met the Spanish forces near Zutphen, and a great Englishman, Sir Philip Sidney—great as a writer, as a soldier, and as a man—lost his life in the battle. As he was carried off the field mortally wounded, he asked for some water to quench the raging thirst which a severe wound always produces. It was brought, and he was just lifting the water to his lips when his glance fell on a dying soldier, who was eyeing the water with eager, wistful, and thirsty looks. "Thy need is yet greater than mine," said Sidney, and passed the water untasted to his dying comrade. Such acts of self-denial have made the names of English soldiers and sailors illustrious in every land.

Death of
Sir Philip
Sidney
1586.

(i) The Netherlands were used by Elizabeth "as a bridge of Spain to keep war out of our own gate." The Netherlands offered to make her Queen of the States, but she declined. But she accepted the position of Protector, and it was in this character that she sent over troops under Leicester.

(ii) But, all this time, Elizabeth was secretly negotiating with the Spaniards and she was merely using the Netherlands to serve her own interests and her own ends.

9 The Execution of Mary, 1587—While these things were going on in the Netherlands, some zealous Romanists at home began to plot for the assassination of the queen, and Anthony Babington, a gentleman of fortune, seems to have been the main ringleader in this conspiracy. The plot was discovered by Walsingham, and some of the conspirators, when put to the torture, mentioned the name of Mary. She was accordingly charged as an accessory, and tried under an Act of Parliament which had been passed in 1585 to bring to justice all persons concerned in plots against the Crown. Commissioners were sent down to Fotheringhay Castle to sit upon the trial. After hearing evidence and the statements of the queen in her own

defence, they returned to London, and there in the Star-Chamber brought in a verdict declaring Mary Stuart "guilty of having compassed and imagined the death of the queen." Parliament met soon after, and sent up to Elizabeth a petition that Mary should be executed in accordance with this verdict, but Elizabeth seemed to be extremely reluctant, though she at last confirmed the decision of the Commission. The joy in London, which had always been a very Protestant city, was extreme, the mob marched through the streets hurrahing, shouting, "making bonfires, and singing psalms in every street and lane in the city," and steeple rang out to steeple the news of the condemnation of the Scottish Queen. Elizabeth did not, however, actually sign the warrant till the 11th of February 1587, and on the 18th Mary was beheaded in the hall of Fotheringay Castle. She died at the age of forty-five. Though her face still retained its

Execution of Mary Queen of Scots 1587
 exquisite form, her hair was as white as snow with anxiety and grief, but she died with a calm courage and dignity, which through all her unhappy and mistaken life had never left her. She had set aside her own son, because he was a

Protestant, from the succession to her rights on the crown of England, and she had sent word in 1586 to Philip of Spain that she had chosen him as her heir.

(i) The letters of the conspirators were hidden in beer barrels carried in for the use of Queen Mary's household, but Walsingham was able to obtain a copy of each letter.

(ii) The conflicting motives and emotions that disturbed the mind of Elizabeth and drew her in different directions are well described by Spenser (in the *Faerie Queene*, B \ Canto iv.)

*Should the cause of
 Spain be of her*
 But then for her, on the contrary part,
 Rose many advocates for her to plead
 First there came Pity, with full tender heart,
 And with her joined Regard of womanhede,
 And then came Danger, threatening hidden dread,
 And high alliance unto foreign power,
 Then came Nobility of birth, that bred
fully
 Great ruth thro' her misfortune's tragic stowre
 And lastly Grief did plead, and many tears forth powre

(iii) "Mary was for years the terror of England. Her destruction was 'the Great Cause' to which the highest and the humblest in the land looked as a relief. If her death was a crime, it was a national crime." —*KNIGHT*

10 The Invincible Armada, 1588 — Philip of Spain was at once the most powerful monarch and the hardest working statesman in the whole of Europe, and he was also the great support and mainstay of

Catholicism By his aid Italy and Spain lay bound in the hands of the Inquisition, and the Netherlanders lived in daily terror of the rick, the sword, and the stake To break down the power of England, which, under Elizabeth, was the leader of the Protestant cause in Europe, now became his sole aim—the one subject of his thoughts and wishes day and night The Catholic world expected it of him, and he made up his mind to spend every doubloon¹ in his treasury (though “Spain had become the poorest country in Europe, and her people the most heavily taxed people in the world”), and every drop of blood in his army to satisfy this expectation For three years did he work hard, hoarding money, mustering soldiers, and collecting ships from every port on the Spanish coast The mighty fleet, called by Philip himself *The Invincible Armada*, at last assembled in the Tagus—Meanwhile the English were not idle The nation rose as one man—Catholic and Protestant stood shoulder to shoulder, and in the same ship pulled at one rope The nation, too, had been in training for a great sea-fight Francis Drake, a Devonshire man, had made himself a name and a terror to the Spaniards, by cutting out and waylaying their treasure-ships, as they came laden with gold and silver from the mines of the New World, and had been the first man to go round the world in one voyage Hawkins² and Raleigh, both Devonshire men, had also distinguished themselves as explorers, fighters, and sailors Martin Frobisher and John Davis had both tried to discover the famous North-West passage, and though they had not succeeded, they had given their names to the great straits which lie to the west of Greenland It was under men such as these that English sailors were trained, and that the foundation of our present Empire of the Seas was laid

(i) Mary Queen of Scots had made Philip her heir, and he now laid claim to the succession to the Crown of England

(ii) The full title of the Armada was the “Most Fortunate and Invincible Armada Armada (Spanish form of the Latin *armata*) means simply armed power

(iii)

A Spanish fleet affront our English shores !

It must not be ! it shall not ! Sink or swim

Our cause, our lamp of hope burn bright or dim,

Long as o'er English cliffs the osprey soars, *the fish-hawk, a spee*

Long as on English coasts the breaker roars,

No threatening flag shall scale our blue sea rim,

No smoke from Spanish guns our skies bedim,

No foot from Parina stain our household floors !—DE VERE

¹ A Spanish gold coin worth about 6s.

² But to Hawkins belongs the discredit of having been the man who began the slave trade between Africa and America

11 **The Coming of the Armada**—On the 29th of May 1588, the Armada set sail with the blessing of the Pope and a consecrated banner, on the 19th of July the topmasts of the Spanish ships were desecrated from Lizard Point, and the English beacons upon every hill ~~nowhere~~ along the coast flared out the news from Cornwall to Kent. The Armada consisted of 129 ships of war of a size never before seen, with an army of 22,000 men and 2360 brass cannon on board to conquer England, and another army of 180 priests and monks to convert England. As apparatus and machinery for this latter task they brought with them whips, chains, thumbserows, and those other instruments of torture and persecution which the Inquisition had found so useful in the Netherlands. The Armada came on up the Channel in a majestic and splendid crescent.—The royal Navy of England then consisted of only thirty-six sail, and these of a size not much larger than a modern yacht, but cities and towns, nobles and merchants, ladies and private citizens vied with each other in self-sacrifice, gave up their money and jewels, fitted out vessels at their own expense, and joined in the purchase of cannon and ammunition. London sent double the number of ships and men asked of it, and very soon a fleet of 191 ships—small but active, and filled with daring sailors—covered the waters and patrolled the expanse of the Channel. The Armada was making for the city of Dunkirk, where it was to take on board the grand army of the Duke of Parma, which had marched from the Netherlands to meet it.

(i) The largest ship in the whole English fleet was the *Triumph*—a vessel of only one thousand tons

(ii) Of the Spanish fleet, 65 were large galleons, with enormous castle like buildings both in bow and stern, and 4 great galleasses, each rowed by 300 slaves

12 **The Rout of the Armada**—Slowly but grandly, and it seemed with irresistible power, the Spanish fleet moved in unbroken order up the Channel. But the little English vessels sailed two feet for the Spaniards' one, and fired four shots for the Spaniards' one. The Spaniards were poor seamen and bad gunners, and their shot passed clean over the English ships, and so, closing in and drawing off, now steering boldly in and pouring shot into the enemy's stern, now playing at long bowls from a distance, the English kept up a running fight for a whole week, until at length the Armada cast

anchor in the roads of Calus. Now, in the dead of night, Howard sent eight fire-ships among them, and the Spaniards, struck with panic, hove anchors or cut their cables and stood to sea. At last had come the chance for the English vessels. Three or four closed round each mighty man-of-war, and they poured shot into these unwieldy floating castles until the Spaniard struck or sank. Many of the crowded galleons "had become mere slaughter-houses." The wind was blowing right up the Channel they could not return by the way they came, and no road was left open to them but to go round by the Orkney Islands. In these northern seas their huge high-built ships met the full fury of the northern blasts. Only fifty-three vessels, creeping painfully home with shattered yards and broken rigging, reached Corunna, their sailors half dead with over-work and want of food, and the shores of the Orkneys, the Hebrides, and Ireland were strewn thick with fragments of ships, with mast and plank, with dead bodies of soldier and sailor. In one cove near Sligo 1100 Spanish corpses were cast up by the sea—And so the power and the pride of the mighty Spaniard were broken, so ended the greatest danger to the liberty of England and of Europe that had ever been plotted against any nation by foreign prince.

(i) "The English ships, being far the lesser, charged the enemy with marvellous agility, and, having discharged their broadsides, flew forth furiously into the deep, and levelled their shot directly, without missing, at these great ships of the Spaniards." "The feathers of the Armada were plucked one by one"

(ii) When the fire ships drifted among the Spanish vessels, "some cut their cables, others let the hawsers slip, and happest they, who could first be gone, though I was could tell what course to take."

(iii) Philip was not depressed by the terrible disaster, and by the loss of nearly eighty ships. he said he would go on and try again and again, even if it should come to selling the silver candlesticks that stood upon his table

(iv) The expedition to Cadiz, under Lord Howard and the Earl of Essex which inflicted on the Spaniards a loss of four millions sterling, is described by Macaulay as "the most brilliant military exploit that was achieved on the Continent by English arms during the long interval that elapsed between the Battle of Agincourt and the Battle of Blenheim."

13 The Earl of Essex.—Queen Elizabeth had, in spite of her coldness and calculating power at the Council-board, always had her favourites at court. The Earl of Leicester, who had long been first favourite, died in the midst of the national rejoicing for the great

victory, and Robert Devereux, Earl of Essex, soon filled his place in the favour of the Queen. Essex had as a young man shown dauntless courage and immovable presence of mind at the taking of Cadiz, but he was far from being strong enough and wise enough to fill the difficult post of Lord-Lieutenant of Ireland. To that country, however, he was sent, with the immediate purpose of breaking the power of the rebellious Earl of Tyrone. Instead of subduing the Irish chieftain, however, he made peace with him. A reprimand was sent out. ^{Essex} Essex took alarm, conceived the idea that his rivals were undermining him, left his post without leave, and, presuming on the queen's personal fondness for him, suddenly presented himself before Elizabeth. Instead of being affectionately welcomed, he was at once thrown into prison. Before long, however, he was set at liberty, and he lost no time in trying to rouse the Londoners to revolt. The Execution of Essex 1601 discontented of all classes flocked to his standard, but he was quickly beaten by the Government troops, thrown into the Tower, tried, condemned and beheaded at the age of thirty-four. This was in 1601.

(i) "On the 28th of September, about ten o'clock in the morning, my Lord of Essex lighted at the court-gate in post, and made all haste up to the presence, and so to the privy chamber, and stayed not till he came to the queen's bed chamber, where he found the queen newly up, with her hair about her face. He kneeled unto her, kissed her hands, and had some private speech with her, which seemed to give him great contentment, for, when he came from her Majesty, he was very pleasant, and thanked God, though he had suffered much trouble and storms abroad, he found a sweet calm at home. 'Tis much wondered at here, that he went so boldly to her Majesty's presence, she not being ready and he so full of dirt and mire, that his very face was full of it."

(ii) Essex was executed in private.

14 **The Elizabethan Literature** — The steady triumph which the policy of Elizabeth and her ministers achieved gave to the nation a peace and a settled quiet under which all kinds of industry, commerce, enterprise, and thought prospered and grew in daily strength. England had become a quiet and happy country, and the "merry songs of peace" were heard in every hamlet and every village. The imagination of Englishmen had also been fired and exalted by the great expeditions and voyages undertaken by Drake and Hawkins and Frobisher, and tales of new countries and new races constantly whetted the keen appetite for wonders. Ever new worlds of fact

and of fancy appeared to dawn upon the wondering thoughts of the people, and it was at this time that English poetry reached the highest point it has ever touched in the history of the nation. Indeed, the literature of Elizabeth's time is unequalled, and there never came together so splendid a galaxy¹ of great writers as that which shone in London in the year 1590. In that year were met in London, Spenser, Chapman, Drayton, Shakespeare, Bacon, Raleigh, Ben Jonson, Marlowe and other men nearly as great. Of these men Shakespeare was the greatest, and the form of literature which he brought to a height it never came near before, or has come near since, was the dramatic. The greatest narrative poet was Spenser, the greatest prose writer was Hooker, and the greatest philosopher, Lord Bacon. So wonderful a blossoming and fertility of mental power had hardly ever been seen in the history of the world, and never in the history of England, and much of it was due to the settled order produced by the government of Elizabeth. Shakespeare makes one of his characters prophesy of her—

"In her days every man shall eat in fear
Under his own vines what he plants, and sleep
The merry songs of peace to all his neighbours

And the prophecy came true

England became "a nest of singing birds"

15 **Death of Elizabeth**—As the queen grew older, her friends and counsellors were taken away by death, a new generation was growing up that had never known, except from hearsay, the triumphs of her youth, and England had become more serious, more moral, more Protestant, and perhaps more pro-mie. Elizabeth, for her part, was as young and gay as ever. At the age of sixty-seven she flirted and danced and frolicked with her courtiers with as much spiritfulness and as much apparent vigour as at thirty. She was more greedy of compliments than ever, but her face was drawn and wrinkled, and her figure had wasted down almost to a skeleton. The execution of the Earl of Essex sank into her heart, and she never quite got over it. At last, in the beginning of the year 1603, she grew seriously ill, and the weakness of old age could not throw off the illness. She who had never feared threat or plot, king or kaiser,

¹ Literally *milky way* but applied metaphorically to any asemblage of stars in literature, art, or science. Compare the use of the word *archipelago*.

was now filled with the hourly dread of an invisible assassin. She lay upon the floor, propped up with pillows, by her side a sword, which from time to time she thrust through the arras,¹ day and night she hardly moved or changed her position, never looked up, never spoke a word. She refused to name her successor. If her counsellors hinted the need of this, she flashed out upon them, and said it was like "punning her shroud round her face" All the reply they got from her was, "Who should succeed me but a king?" and the only possible meaning of this was, James the Sixth of Scotland. In the end of March she lay dying in her palace of Richmond, and Sir Robert Carey, booted and spurred, sat in a neighbouring room, with his horse ready saddled, to carry to Scotland the news of her

Death of Elizabeth 1603. At two o'clock in the morning of the 24th of March 1603, a light in a certain window in the palace was put out. This was the signal. Carey galloped off, and, riding day and night, he reached Edinburgh on the 27th, and bent the knee to James as the new king of England. Cecil had James at once proclaimed in every town in the country.

Death crept on. Her face became haggard and her frame shrank almost to a skeleton. At last her taste for finery disappeared, and she refused to change her dresses for a week together.

Gradually her mind gave way. She lost her memory, the violence of her temper became unbearable, her very courage seemed to forsake her. Food and rest became alike distasteful. She sat night and day propped up with pillows on a stool, her finger on her lip, her eyes fixed on the floor without a word. Cecil asserted that she must go to bed, and the word roused her like a trumpet. Must she exclaimed, is must a word to be addressed to princes? Little man, little man, thy father if he had been alive, must not have used that word. Then as her anger spent itself, she sank into her old dejection. Thou art so presumptuous, she said, because thou knowest I shall die. —GREEN.

✓ 16 The Character of Elizabeth.—The chief external characteristic of Elizabeth was personal vanity and fondness for show. Her young courtiers humoured this, and bowed their way up to her with their hands shading their eyes, as if they were dazzled to look upon that "divine beauty." She wore the bravest dresses, she had a new one almost every week, and she left behind her three thousand rich dresses in her wardrobe. At court and on a journey she blazed with jewels, and she was never tired of processions and public progresses.—On the other hand, it cannot be denied that she loved her country. Speaking to her first Parliament, she told them in earnest and burning words, such as are not often found in royal speeches. "Nothing—no worldly thing under the sun—is so dear to me as the love and

¹ The embroidered hangings round the room. The name comes from the town of Arras in French Flanders.

goodwill of my subjects !" And she roused the blood of her fighting men at Tilbury with sentences that thrilled through them like the piercing notes of a trumpet "I know I have but the body of a weak and feeble woman, but I have the heart of a king, and a king of England too" She was thrifty even to parsimony, she was without fear, without love, and without hate, she knew the temper and feeling of the country better than any of her statesmen, she made England a great continental power, she made London the mart of the world, and her self-confidence, courage, and power of insight never forsook her

Elizabeth died in the 70th year of her age, and the 45th of her reign

17 The Work of Parliament — Elizabeth's Parliament of 1559, passed the Act of Supremacy, with certain penalties attached, and thus placed all jurisdiction over ecclesiastical matters in the hands of the Crown. In the same year was passed the Act of Uniformity, which established the Revised Prayer-Book, appointed it to be read in all churches, and punished with fines and imprisonment those who refused. In the year 1562, the Pope issued an order forbidding the presence of all good Catholics at the new worship which had been introduced into the Church of England. Parliament replied by imposing the Oath of Supremacy on all members of the House of Commons, and this measure had the unhappy effect of excluding from that House all conscientious Catholics. In the year 1570 Pope Pius v had issued a bill to release all the subjects of Elizabeth from their allegiance to her, and in 1571, Parliament passed an Act against the introduction of papal bulls into the country. By the year 1593, the country had begun to be disturbed by the activity of the Puritans on the one side and of the Romanists on the other, and Parliament passed severe Acts, with penalties attached, against both parties. In 1601, two years before the death of Elizabeth, Parliament laid before the queen the strongest representations against monopolies, and Elizabeth, after considering them along with her advisers, was persuaded to consent to their abolition. In the same year, the first regular Poor-Law passed in England was enacted, and this Act empowered the Overseers of the Poor to levy rates on the land for the purpose of finding work for the poor and indigent, and also of maintaining those who were not strong enough to labour. It will be seen

from this short recount that most of the work of Elizabeth's Parliaments related to ecclesiastical matters Elizabeth though strongly averse to Parliaments, was, like other English sovereigns, compelled now and then to call them for the purpose of procuring subsidies, and the House of Commons was vigorous enough to use these opportunities as a means of gaining new rights and privileges The two chief rights which the House of Commons extorted were (a) freedom of its members from arrest, and (b) freedom of speech on all important matters of State

(i) The first Statute of the Session of 1571 made it treason to say that the Queen ought not to possess the crown, or to affirm that she was a heretic, schismatic, ^{in Church} tyrant, etc Another statute enacted that the publishing of a papal bull should be ^{reference} accounted high treason and that the introduction into the kingdom of crosses, beads, pictures, etc, should be regarded as an infringement of the Act of Praemunire

(ii) Mr Secretary Cecil (the son of Lord Burleigh) spoke thus to the House of Commons — "And because you may eat your meat more savoury than you have done, every man shall have salt as good and cheap as he can buy it or make it, freely without danger of that patent which shall be presently revoked The same benefit shall they have which have cold stomachs, for aquaviva and the like And they that have weak stomachs, for their satisfaction shall have vinegar and alegar, and the like, set at liberty Train oil shall go the same way, oil of blubber shall march in equal rank, brushes and bottles endure the like judgment' Monopolies and "patents" had also been given for starch, leather, cards, glass—and, indeed, for almost everything purchasable

(a) The word *danger* comes from the Low Latin word *dominium* absolute authority or complete lordship Shakespeare in the *Merchant of Venice* uses it in the same sense when he makes Portia say to Antonio "You stand within his (Shylock's) danger, do you not?"

(b) *Alegar* = vinegar made from sour ale So *vinegar* = *vin algre* sour wine

18 Great Men — The age of Elizabeth was fertile in great men in every department of human thought and action England had never before seen a time so fruitful in great events, great actions, great books, and great men The two most distinguished statesmen of the age were William Cecil, Lord Burleigh (who was succeeded by his son Robert Cecil, Earl of Salisbury), and Sir Francis Walsingham. The two most prominent men in the Church were Parker and Grindal, both of them Archbishops of Canterbury In naval and exploring expeditions, the names of Lord Howard of Effingham, of Sir Francis Drake, of Sir John Hawkins, and of Sir Humphrey Gilbert stand out above the rest, while Sir Walter Raleigh unites in his own person the high qualities of explorer, poet, historian, and statesman Among men who rose to high positions by their social powers and their

personal influence with the Queen were—in the first part of her reign, Robert Dudley, Earl of Leicester, and in the second part, Robert Devereux, Earl of Essex.

19 Commerce—The settled peace which Elizabeth and her advisers were able to give to England enabled commerce to make long and rapid strides. An enormous impetus was given to ship-building. The daring sailors—mostly Devonshire men—who carried the flag of England into every sea, not only made us acquainted with new countries, but opened up new markets for the growing trade of England. Sir John Hawkins opened up a trade with the west coast of Africa in 1562; though this trade was at first chiefly in negroes. The London Royal Exchange, built at the expense of Sir Thomas Gresham, was opened by the Queen in person in the year 1571. Trade was begun with Turkey in 1583. A company of London merchants received a charter for exclusive trade with the East Indies, and took the title of the East India Company—The world was, during this reign, three times circumnavigated by Sir Francis Drake, and many discoveries were made by other brave sailors, such as Hawkins, Davis, and Frobisher—Against all this activity in navigation and commerce must be set the prevalence of monopolies, which impeded commerce and manufactures in almost every department and every kind of raw material.

Frobisher's Straits were discovered by Sir Martin Frobisher in 1567, and Davis Straits by John Davis in the same year.

20 Social Facts—The country was very prosperous during the reign of Elizabeth, and the standard of comfort and health, both in dwellings and in food, had greatly risen every where. The Elizabethan manor-house of the country squire was beautiful as well as comfortable, it had its hall and buttery, its dining-room and parlour, its great kitchen, its chapel, and its smoking-room. It was surrounded with a moat, and it possessed a flower-garden as well as a kitchen-garden—Agriculture improved greatly, and one acre, under the better agricultural methods, now produced as much as two acres in any previous reign—The manufacture of woollens flourished exceedingly, and Norwich became the centre of this manufacture.

(i) The Elizabethan manor house had two projecting wings and a central part, and the letter E is said to have suggested its form.

(ii) Pocket-watches were introduced in 1577, and coaches in 1580.

SHORT CHRONOLOGY AND SUMMARY OF ELIZABETH'S REIGN

1558	Accession of Elizabeth	1588	THE INVINCIBLE ARMADA. Death of Leicester
1559	Act of Supremacy Act of Uniformity	1590	Death of Walsingham
1568	Mary Queen of Scots flees to England.	1591	Expedition to help Henry IV of France
1569	Northern Insurrection in favour of Catholicism and Mary	1592	Second Expedition in aid of Henry IV
1570	Pope Pius v's Bull releasing Englishmen from allegiance to Elizabeth	1596	Taking of Cadiz by Howard and Essex.
1575	Elizabeth offered the sovereignty of the Netherlands.	1598	Death of Burleigh.
1585	Treaty between Elizabeth and the Netherlands	1600	East India Company receives a Charter
1586	Trial of Mary Queen of Scots	1601	Execution of Essex. Abolition of Monopolies
1587	Execution of Mary Pope Sixtus v proclaims a Crusade against Elizabeth.	1602	First regular Poor Law
		1603	Death of Elizabeth.

IMPORTANT CONTEMPORARY EVENTS

1559	Return of John Knox to Scotland from Geneva	1576	Henry of Navarre (afterwards Henry IV of France) takes the lead of the French Protestants
1561.	Return of Mary Queen of Scots to Scotland	1579	Desmond's Rebellion in Munster
1566	Birth of James VI. (I of England)	1584.	Assassination of William of Orange
1567	Abdication of Mary Queen of Scots	1590	Battle of Ivry The Catholic League defeated by Henry IV
1568	Insurrection of the Netherlands against Spain	1592.	Establishment in Scotland of The Presbyterian Church.
1572	Massacre of St. Bartholomew, or "the Paris Matins"	1598	Edict of Nantes

ENGLAND IN THE SIXTEENTH CENTURY

(WITH THE AGE OF ELIZABETH)

1. **Introductory**—The Tudor Period was in almost every sense—political, social, intellectual, and geographical—the Age of New Things. The Revival of Learning, the Invention of the Printing Press, the Discovery of the New World, the Rise of Commerce, the Foundation of our Colonial Empire—all these gave a stimulus to the feelings and thoughts of Englishmen such as history can show no other record of. England, moreover, was becoming a new England by the immense political changes that were taking place. The old feudal nobility was gone, the old castles were no longer defensible—gunpowder had made the bow and arrow useless, the government was centralised in the hands of the King and his council, for the King had the only park of artillery in the kingdom, trade and commerce took rapid strides, and with them rose a new, important, wealthy, thoughtful and vigorous middle-class *long steps*

2. **Land**.—The great change in regard to the land was the system of Enclosures. The chief source of wealth for England in this century was the growth of wool and the weaving of cloth, and the landowners found it better to substitute pasturage for tillage, to feed sheep rather than to grow corn. Hence they enclosed large breadths of land, and fewer ploughmen and labourers were required. The land was “decayed of people,” houses, villages, and towns were pulled down, and, where two hundred labourers used to be in regular employment, two or three herdsmen were found to be sufficient. It was in vain that Parliament strove to put a stop to the destruction of houses and the enclosure of land. In 1535, an Act was passed which forbade any one person to keep more than 2000 sheep, but the temptation to make money by the sale of wool was too powerful for most. A large number of labourers thrown idle and prevented from earning an honest living—thus was seen, what was not seen was the large number of manufacturers, retailers, and merchants who prospered by the growth of wool in the great towns and cities. In time the difficulty righted itself, and England grew a proper proportion of grain to wool.

(i) Sir Thomas More writes ironically "Your sheep that were wont to be so meek and tame and so small eaters,—now, as I say, be become so great devourers, and so wild, that they eat up and swallow down the very men themselves. They consume, destroy, and devour whole fields, houses, and cities

(ii) "They enclose all into pasture, they throw down houses, they pluck down towns, and leave nothing standing, but only the church, to be made a sheep-house

3 Population—The population of England at the beginning of the sixteenth century was probably about four millions. At the end of the century it was about five millions—or a little less than the population of London and its suburbs at the present day

4. Houses—With the centralised power of the Tudor kings, strong castles were no longer built by barons for war or for defence, but in their stead rose handsome brick or stone mansions, with quaint gables, pleasant bay-windows, decorated chimneys, and beautiful terraces in front. The English manor-house is typical of the gentry of England. "The house," says Sir Philip Sidney of his own Kentish seat at Penshurst, "was built of fair and strong stone, not affecting so much any extraordinary kind of fineness, as an honourable representing of a firm stateliness." Glass was now cheap, and the windows were numerous, and fair and large. Inside, the receiving rooms or 'chambers of presence,' were hung with rich tapestry, or wainscoted with carved oak, the hall was no longer used to dine in, but had become a mere entrance to the house, and the private rooms were distributed into "My lord's side" and "My lady's side"—The yeoman's house was built of wood, and here too, many comforts had entered. No longer a pallet of straw and a log of wood for a pillow, but feather-beds and soft pillows and blankets had become usual. The old English love of flowers was manifest everywhere—both inside and outside the floors were on occasions strewn with sweet herbs, the bedrooms smelt of lavender, while roses, pinks, columbines, hollyhocks, sweet-william, and other flowers surrounded the house

(i) "The floors of the earlier part of the 16th century were mostly of clay, and strewn with rushes. Fresh rushes are periodically laid over them, but the old ones remain for, perhaps, twenty years together

(ii) "Our fathers and we ourselves, have lain full oft upon straw pallets, or rough mats, covered only with a sheet, and a good round log under the head for bolster. If it were so that our fathers, or the goodman of the house, had within seven years after his marriage purchased a mattress or flock bed, and therewith a sack of chaff to rest his head on, he thought himself to be as well lodged as the lord of the town. — HARRISON

5 Manners and Customs—The increasing wealth of the country brought with it an increase of comfort, luxury, and enjoyment. The dinner-hour for the majority of people was eleven, and supper

was at seven o'clock. At feasts and on holidays, at Whitsuntide and Yule-tide, the spirit of revelry entered into all, and an enormous amount of eating and drinking was got through. At bridals and at christening feasts each guest brought with him his own provisions and all the host was expected to provide was bread and ale and dancing room. The ale was home-brewed, and it was only in the houses of the rich that wine was drunk. With the change from tillage to pasturage, beef and mutton became cheap, and the farmer and yeoman fed on salt-beef and roast mutton, which they washed down with potent ale. The rich ate wheaten, and the poor barley, bread, and puddings with spices, almonds, and currants from the East came into vogue in Queen Elizabeth's time. — In dress the people, influenced by the example of Queen Elizabeth herself, began to be very extravagant. Wreaths of gold and jewels in the hair, which was fixed on small bolsters, rings of precious stones in the ears, great cambric ruffs round the neck, "smeared in the devil's liquor, starch," velvet hats, immense farthingales or hooped petticoats, stomachers blazing with jewels—such were some of the features of the dress of high-born or wealthy ladies. And even the yeoman's daughter and the cottager's daughter "will not stick to flaunt it out in such gowns, petticoats, and kirtles as these." The men were not less brave in their apparel. Italian cloaks, Spanish mantles, French caps, and Scotch daggers formed the fashionable outfit for men in the times of the Tudors.

(i) In 1508, a calf cost 2s 6d, a sheep 1s, and a round of beef 9d. The skilled artificer had 6d. a day, and the labourer 3d. to 3½d.

(ii) "There is no small innkeeper, however poor and humble he may be, who does not serve his table with silver dishes and drinking cups.

(iii) "The Duke of Buckingham wore at the marriage of Prince Arthur, in 1501, a 'gown wrought of needlework and set upon cloth of tissue furred with sables, the which gown was valued at £1500 —at least £15,000 of our money.

'I think' says Portia in 'The Merchant of Venice' of her English guest 'he bought his doublet in Italy, his round hose in France, his bonnet in Germany and his behaviour everywhere.

(iv) "The farmer of the sixteenth century pursued many trades in his little home stead. He had eels in his stew, and bees in his garden. He grew his own hops and made his own malt. He raised his own hemp and twisted his own cart ropes. His flax was cleaned and spun at home. Some of his wool he sold to the webster, and some kept the spindles moving on his kitchen floor. He sawed out his own timber. He made his own mud walls round his cattle yard. He was his own farrier. He killed his sheep or his calf without the aid of the butcher. He made his own candles and his own charcoal. He cultivated herbs for physic, which his wife dried or distilled. His cheese was manufactured in his own press. —KNIGHT

Stew was a fish pond for keeping fish alive till they were wanted for cooking. The word is connected with *stow* a place, and *stow* (away) to put in a place.

Webster is the old feminine of *weaver*. It afterwards came to include weavers of both sexes.

6 Trade—The two chief manufactures of England during the Tudor Period were the weaving of cloth and the tanning of leather, and cloth and leather were the two largest exports from the country. The chief export in the fifteenth century was wool, in the sixteenth it was cloth. The first great impulse to trade was given by the commercial treaty of 1496—a treaty with the Netherlands called the Magnus Intercursus (The Great Intercourse), by which Henry VII secured for the merchants of both countries what was practically free trade. This trade was conducted chiefly by the Merchant Adventurers, who obtained a Royal Charter in 1501—The daring and perseverance of English sailors opened up, in many parts of the world, new markets for English merchants. The Russian Company was founded in 1532 for the purpose of trading with the towns of the Baltic. The Turkey Company received a charter in 1581 to allow it to trade with the Levant. The East India Company, which was destined to become one of the great political powers of the world, received its first charter from Elizabeth in 1600, and it gradually amassed wealth and lands for the next two hundred and fifty years. The greatest and most rapid expansion of English trade took place in the reign of Elizabeth. London now began to take the foremost position in commerce of all the towns of England—a position which it has held ever since. The wealth of the traders of London was the envy and amazement of foreign travellers.

The Italian Ambassador wrote home "In one single street, named the Strand, leading to St Pauls, there are fifty two goldsmiths shops, so rich and full of silver vessels, great and small, that in all the shops in Milan, Rome, Venice, and Florence put together, I do not think there are to be found so many, or of the magnificence to be seen in London."

7 The Church.—While the changes in all parts of English society and of the political constitution during the sixteenth century were so great as to amount to a revolution, the change in the position of the Church was the greatest of all. In the time of Henry VII the Church held nearly one-third of all the land in the country, could keep the nation in peace, or could give its voice for foreign war. It was the chief, almost the only, repository of learning. The monasteries of England numbered 645, with revenues to be counted by millions. After the deaths of so many barons in the Wars of the Roses, it held the largest number of seats in the Upper House—the Spiritual Lords were nearly twice the number of the Lords Temporal. Much of the legal jurisdiction of the country was in its hands, for all criminals who could read could demand that their cases be taken out of the King's Courts into the Courts of the Church. It controlled the settlement and transmission of the lands of laymen,

for in its hands rested the drawing up and the carrying out of wills. The good of the country,—diplomacy,—the organising of war,—social arrangements (through its power in the confessional),—the management of all these made the Church by far the most influential body in the kingdom.—The action of Henry VIII changed all this. And, in the reign that followed, during the minority of Edward VI, the first Act of Uniformity of 1549 transferred the temporal, and much of the spiritual, power of the Church to the hands of the Government for the time being. Even points of faith and doctrine were discussed by the layty of England and settled by them. The Revival of Learning, deprived the Church of its monopoly of scholarship. Greek poetry, and Greek Philosophy were looked upon with suspicion by churchmen, and much of the scholarship of the country passed into the hands of laymen—such as Thomas More and Roger Ascham. Much of the wealth of the Church went to establish Grammar schools, ^{and} and the laity displayed a stronger anxiety for learning than was shown by the clergy.

(i) The spirit of the Renaissance was actively at work amongst the subjects of Elizabeth, blunting the edge of religious controversy, and sending men in search of earthly beauty and enjoyment, instead of spiritual growth. Holding out its hand, as in Spenser, to Protestantism, it was in the main, as in Shakespeare and the dramatists, neither Catholic nor Protestant.—GARDINER.

(ii) The list of the Privy Council in 1552 contains only two names of clergymen.

8 **London**—The capital of England presented a very different appearance under Elizabeth from what it does in the reign of Victoria. The City proper was surrounded by walls, with gates and towers at intervals. But even the City was not crowded with buildings, it was more like a country town, with gardens here and there, and the smell of flowers and the may in many of its streets. Chancery Lane, now the crowded abode of lawyers and law-offices, was a real country lane, with fields and trees on either side. In Drury Lane there were, on one side of it, no houses at all, on the other side, some half-dozen, including Drury House. The Strand was lined with houses on both sides as far as Charing Cross, but behind each house was a large and well laid-out garden, some of them stretching down to the river. Covent Garden was the garden of a convent, Hay Market had not a single house, nor had Hedge Lane, which is now called Long Acre—one of the most crowded parts of London. Deer fed in St James's Park. The Thames ran sweet, clear, and sparkling between noble country-houses on the left, and green fields on the right hand. In Southwark, which had only about a score of houses, there was a ring for the buting of bulls and bears. The citizens walked out to Holborn, and even as far as Bloomsbury, for change of air, and the

fresh country air of Fetter Lane was recommended for children and invalids

9 **Language**—The English Language was, in the Tudor period, pretty much what it is now. It had lost most of its inflections, and hence was easier to speak and to write. But the vocabulary of the Tudors was not so rich as the vocabulary of the nineteenth century. Such words as *virtue*, *vice*, *study*, *justice*, *pity*, *compassion*, *profit*, *colour*, *grace*, and *favour* were absent from our language in 1550. But the saturation with Norman-French was complete, and this element lent rich colour and varying hues to the English of Shakespeare and the other Elizabethan dramatists. The chief differences between Tudor and Victorian English lay in the pronunciation and the spelling. Englishmen still sounded a, e, and i, as *ah*, *eh*, and *ee*—as is still the custom on the Continent—and the spelling was pretty much according to the “sweet will” of the printer or transcriber. The new sense of freedom which was felt from the almost complete loss of grammatical inflection stimulated the Elizabethan dramatists to take the wildest liberties with our language, and a word could be employed in any function—could figure as any part of speech. Shakespeare speaks of “a seldom pleasure,” “the under eye,” “the fairest she”, talks of the “backward of time,” to “tongue and brain” (for to speak and think), to “askance his eyes,” to “happy a friend,” to “false a friend,” and to “malice an enemy”

(i) Mr Ellis gives the pronunciation of the well known line—

“One touch of Nature makes the whole world kin, as

‘Oan toosh of nature marks the whol world keen

The pronunciation of *one* as *wun* is from a West of England dialect, the regular and orthodox pronunciation is found in *atone* and *alone*

(ii) The following lines are in the spelling of the First Quarto (1600) edition of *The Merchant of Venice* —

—when I told you

My state was nothing, I should then haue told you

That I was worse then nothing, for indeed

I haue ingag’d my selfe to my deere friend,

Ingag’d my friend to his meere enemy

To feed my meanes

Such spellings as *sadnes*, *burgars*, *piercs* (piers), *rodes* (roads), *leysures* are also found

(iii) When the adjective lost its inflections, it formed a looser connection with its noun than it can form in German or in French, and Shakespeare seems at times to run riot in this freedom. Thus, *a thirsty evil* means *an evil thirsted for* *old woes*=the *woes of old age* *my old excuse*=my *excuse for being old* *a murderous shame*=a *shameful murder* *excellent differences*=*different excellences*, and *estimable wonder*=*admiring*

esteem Again, his *banished years* means the years of his banishment, with *imagined wing* means with the wings of imagination. In the well known passage in *Hamlet*,

—the funeral baked meats
Did coldly furnish forth the marriage tables,

coldly means after they had been allowed to get cold

(iv) For freedom, for brevity, and for vigour, Elizabethan is superior to modern English —ABBOTT

10 Literature —The Elizabethan Age of English Literature is by far the greatest and richest that our history can show. Almost every kind of writing in prose and in verse reached a height which it never approached before, and seldom since. Edmund Spenser (1552-99), who has been rightly called "The Poet's Poet," gave to England one of its greatest and sweetest poems in the "Faerie Queene." Sir Thomas Wyatt and the Earl of Surrey had preceded him, the former in introducing to our literature the sonnet, the latter, blank verse. But it was in the highest form of poetry—the Drama—that the mighty genius of the Elizabethan Age found its culmination. The drama aims at giving, in its most vivid and condensed form, the very essence of the many-coloured and ever-varying story of human life, and no English drama has ever approached in excellence and variety the drama of the Elizabethan age. The three greatest names in drama are William Shakespeare, Ben Jonson, and Christopher Marlowe — In prose the two most distinguished names are Francis Bacon and Richard Hooker. Both of these men excelled in expressing the results of deep thought and careful observation of human life in the most pithy, powerful, and rhythmic language.

(i) Wyatt (1503-42) and Surrey (1517-47) have been called "the twin stars of the dawn, and the 'founders of English lyrical poetry' "

(ii) Edmund Spenser's first great work is the "Shepherd's Calendar." It appeared in 1579—a most notable year in the history of our literature. "Without calling Spenser the greatest of all poets, we may still say that his poetry is the most poetical of all poetry." —CRAIK.

(iii) Shakespeare (1564-1616) was born at Stratford-on-Avon. His two greatest tragedies are *Hamlet* and *King Lear*. His finest comedy is *As You Like It*. He died just eight years after Milton was born.

(iv) Ben Jonson (1573-1637) wrote both prose and verse. His greatest drama is *Volpone* (or "The Fox"). He was buried in an upright position in Westminster Abbey, and the stone over his grave still bears the inscription "O raro Ben Jonson!"

(v) Christopher Marlowe (1564-93) was a M.A. of Cambridge. His greatest play is "The Life and Death of Dr. Faustus," which contains some of the noblest lines in the language. His "Edward II." inspired Shakespeare's marvellous series of history plays.

(vi) Richard Hooker (1553-1600) was Master of the Temple in 1585. He is the author of "The Laws of Ecclesiastical Polity."

PLAN OF DATES
SIXTEENTH CENTURY

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A.D 1500	1501 Marriage of Arthur, Prince of Wales with Katharine of Arragon	1502 Death of Prince Arthur The Princess Margaret marries James IV of Scotland	1503 Treaty of Perpetual Peace with Scotland	1504
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1510 Impson and Dudley executed			Field	
1511	1512	1513 Battle of Flodden.	1521 Henry made 'Defender of the Faith'	
1514	1515 Wolsey Lord Chancellor	1516	1524	
1517 FORMATION IN GERMANY	1518 Wolsey Papal Legate	1519	1527	

1540 Cromwell executed				
1541	1542 Henry king of Ireland. Mary Stuart born	1543	1551	Exec Sec
1544	1545	1546 Cardinal Beaton assassi nated	1554 Wyatt's Rebellion. Execution of Lady Jane Mary marries Philip of Spain	Persco
1547 Death of Henry VIII EDWARD VI Desert Protector	1548	1549 First Prayer Book Warwick Protector	1557 Battle of St. Quentin The First Covenant signed at Edinburgh	

1570 Pope Pius's Bull releasing Englishmen from their allegiance				
1571	1572 Massacre of St Bartholo mew	1573	1581	Edinbu
1574 abolished in Royal Manors	1575 Elizabeth offered the sovereignty of the Netherlands.	1576	1584	Treat
1577 begins his voyage	1578	1579 Desmond's Rebellion	1587 Execution of Mary	

		1530 Death of Wolsey		
old	1523	1531 Henry Head of the Church	1532 Annates abolished.	1533 Henry marries A Boleyn Cranmer Archbishop Canterbury
	1526	1534 Act abolishing the au thority of the Pope	1535 Act of Supremacy	1536 Union of England Wales The Pilgrimage of (
	1529 Fall of Wolsey More Chancellor	1537 Edward vi born	1538 Larger Monasteries sup pressed	1539 Thomas Becket's burned

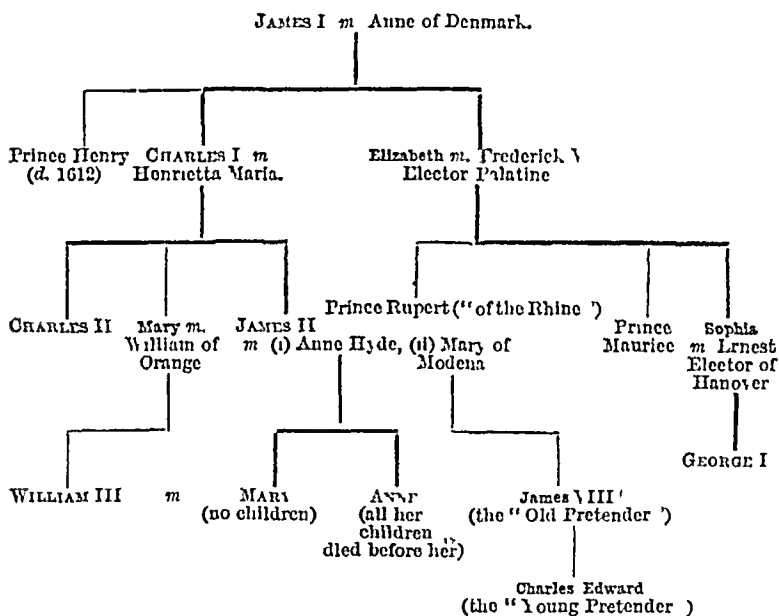
		1560		
st	1553 Death of Edward vi MARY Execution of North umberland	1561 Mary Stuart returns to Scotland	1562	1563 The Thirty Nine A ratified
nts	1556 Cranmer burnt Pole Archbishop of Can terbury	1564 Shakespeare born.	1565 Mary Stuart marries H Darnley	1566 Birth of James I of England
	1559 Act of Supremacy Act of Uniformity	1567 Murder of Darnley	1568 Mary Queen of Scots flees to England	1569 Northern Insurrec Catholics

		1590 Death of Walsingham		
nded	1583	1591	1592 The Presbyterian Church established in Scotland	1593 Act to compel attn at the Church of E
her	1586 Trial of Mary Queen of Scots	1594	1595	1596 Taking of Cadiz ard and Ess

BOOK VII
THE HOUSE OF STUART
AND
THE COMMONWEALTH

THE HOUSE OF STUART

(AND ITS CONNECTION WITH THE HOUSE OF HANOVER)



CHAPTER I

JAMES THE FIRST

Born 1566 Succeeded (at the age of 37) in 1603 Died 1625.

Reigned 22 years

JAMES STUART, VI of Scotland and I of England, was born in Edinburgh Castle in 1566. He was the only child of Mary Queen of Scots and Henry Darnley, who was the grandson of Margaret Tudor. He was crowned King of Scotland when he was a year old, and succeeded to the crown of England on the death of Elizabeth in 1603. In 1585 he became a pensioner of Queen Elizabeth's. In 1589 he married a Protestant Princess, Anne of Denmark. They had three children: Prince Henry, who died in 1612, Charles I., and Elizabeth, who married Frederick, Count Palatine. It was through this marriage that the House of Hanover came to the throne in the person of George I., who was the grandson of this Elizabeth. James I. died in the year 1625.

Mary Queen of Scots was herself the grandchild of Margaret Tudor through her first husband, James IV. Darnley was also the grandchild of Margaret Tudor through her second husband, the Earl of Angus. Thus they were cousins, and on the grandmother's side both of English descent.

CONTEMPORARY SOVEREIGNS

FRANCE

HENRY IV. to 1609

LOUIS XIII.

SPAIN

PHILIP III. to 1621

PHILIP IV.

1 James I., 1603-1625 —James of Scotland was about thirty-seven when he was called to the throne of England. He had been nominally a king ever since he was a year old, but really a pensioner of Queen Elizabeth, he was now a king in reality—a king with large powers, vast wealth, and great influence. He took a month to travel from Edinburgh to London, and his progress was one long triumphal procession the whole way. The noblemen and gentlemen of every

county met him on horseback at the borders of their own shire, and escorted him across the breadth of it, handing him over to a similar convoy before they parted with him. Every town upon the road made high holiday. The jails were thrown open, and every prisoner—with the exception of those who had committed murder—was set free. When the royal cavalcade was nearing London, the lord mayor, the aldermen, the great livery companies, with the wealthy merchants—all well mounted, magnificently dressed, and with chains of gold about their necks—met their new king at Theobalds in Hertfordshire, and gave him a welcome such as he had never before received in his life. But the new king possessed neither the handsome person nor the royal bearing of King Henry VIII or of Queen Elizabeth. He was, on the contrary, mean-looking and ungainly, his head was big and ill-shaped, he was goggle-eyed, his legs were bent and rickety, his tongue too large for his mouth, his habits were ^{filthy}unclean (he never washed his hands), and his manner was common, uncouth, and utterly wanting in personal dignity. So weak and cowardly was he, that the sight of a drawn sword made him shudder, and he rode so badly, that every one smiled as he jolted along on horseback. He had been carefully educated by the great Scottish scholar George Buchanan, and he was in some respects a learned man, but he had few or none of the qualities of a ruler, and he certainly did not understand the England or the English he had come to reign over. His chief adviser, after he came to England, was Robert Cecil, the son of Elizabeth's counsellor, Lord Burleigh.

(i) JAMES I was in reality a foreigner, ignorant of English traditions constitutional rights and privileges, and of the inherent rights and powers of the English Parliament. "James brought with him from Scotland no practical knowledge of the English character or of the wants of the English people"—GARDINER.

(ii) James ordered a cut-purse (=pickpocket) to be hanged at Newark without form of trial. This was a violation of English law and of all the English charters. Harrington, an able Englishman, wrote to a friend "I hear our new king hath hanged one man before he was tried 'tis strangely done. Now, if the wind bloweth thus, why may not a man be tried before he hath offended? He never repeated this offence against legality and it may therefore be supposed that Cecil gave him some advice on the subject, and told him that he was breaking the ancient laws of England.

(iii) While Elizabeth was very sparing of honours, even to her statesmen and soldiers, who had served her long and well James showered the honour of knighthood on two hundred and thirty seven gentlemen, during the course of his journey of thirty two days to London. "Come," he would say "we have been making a night of it, let

me make a knight of you rise, Sir Basil Brooke! '—The "Modern Solomon" was fond of puns, verbal pedantries, etc. *was an undisciplined display of learning*

The English people had been governed during nearly a hundred and fifty years by princes who whatever might be their frailties or their vices had all possessed great force of character, and who whether beloved or hated had always been feared. Now at length for the first time since the day when the sceptre of Henry IV dropped from the hand of his lethargic grandson England had a king whom she despised. *Nature and education had done their best to produce a finished specimen of all that a king ought not to be* —MACAULAY

(iv) The Stuart Dynasty reigned in England 111 years

(v) "On the day of the accession of James the First, England descended from the rank which she had hitherto held, and began to be regarded as a power hardly of the second order —MACAULAY

✓ 2 James's Opinions—His chief theory about government was, that kings ruled by "divine right," and that they were responsible, not to their subjects, but to God alone. In this doctrine he carefully brought up his children, and it was destined, as time went on, to bring one of them to ruin and the block. The corresponding doctrine on the part of his subjects was the doctrine of "passive obedience", and this was very soon widely and earnestly preached by most of the Anglican bishops and clergy. The English nation was at this time divided into three great parties—the Church party, the Roman Catholics, and the Puritans, and each of these parties had been intrigued with, and secretly encouraged to look for special favour from the new king. The Catholics remembered that James's mother had been a Catholic, the Puritans could not forget that he had been brought up in Scotland as a Presbyterian.

(i) The Pope was no longer accepted in England as the Overlord of the king. When the question arose, Who is the Superior of the king? the only possible reply was God. Hence arose the idea of "Divine right."

The king was created by God. It was easy to alter this slightly, and say He was created king by God.

✓ (ii) The divine right of kings, translated into practical politics, became absolute monarchy, translated into the duty of subjects, it became passive obedience. This latter doctrine was warmly advocated by the Anglican bishops and clergy.

The phrase "absolute monarchy" has two meanings—one external the other internal. The external meaning is that no foreign power such as the Pope, has any rule in the kingdom. The internal meaning which James advocated was that the king alone had power in the kingdom, was above the law, and that all other powers were derived from him.

(iii) The divine right of kings became, again, in the sphere of the Church, the divine right of bishops. James's maxim, which he was fond of perpetually quoting, was "No bishop, no king!" Hence his confirmed hatred of the Puritan party.

(iv) James, when in Scotland, had thanked God that he was a member of the "poorest Kirk in the world," but he was very glad to throw off the yoke of the dis-

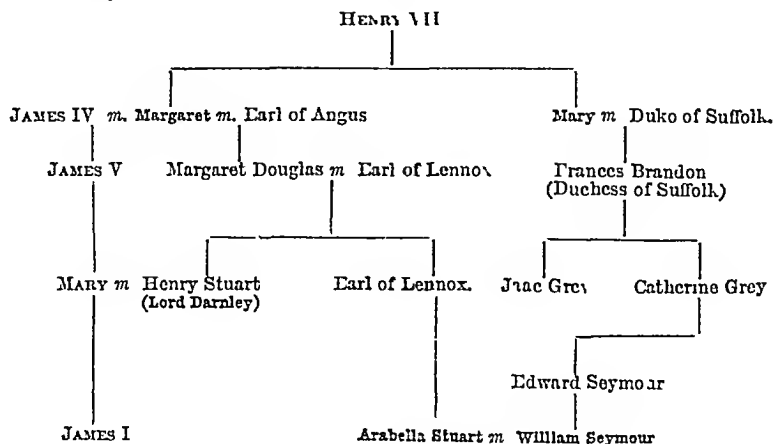
cipline of Presbyterian ministers, and, when in England, to embrace with ardour the hierarchical constitution of the English Church. He could at last speak out his belief "No bishop, no king! At the Hampton Court Conference James said, "A Scottish Presbytery agreeth as well with a monarchy as God and the devil. Then Jack and Tom, and Will and Dick, shall meet, and at their pleasure censure me and my council, and say, 'Nay, marry, but we will have it thus.'"

3 **Arabella Stuart**—James had hardly reached his palace in London before a plot was discovered to place his cousin, Arabella Stuart, on the throne—a plot devised and promoted chiefly by Sir

Main and Bye Plots Walter Raleigh. Raleigh was condemned to death, but his sentence was commuted to imprisonment for life, and 1603 he was sent to the Tower, where he remained for nearly thirteen years.—The lady had herself taken no part in the conspiracy, and was accordingly left unmolested. But, eight years after, she contracted a secret marriage with William Seymour, a descendant of the Duchess of Suffolk, and this union of two possible claimants to the throne very much alarmed James, who threw her, without trial or form of law, into the Tower, where, not long after, she died insane from confinement and misery.

(1) There were really two Plots—the Main Plot and the Bye Plot, or Surprise Plot. The object of the first plot, which was entered into by Raleigh, Lord Cobham and others, was the overthrow of James's adviser, Cecil, and the placing of Arabella Stuart on the throne, by the aid of Spain. The object of the second plot was to seize the person of the king, and compel him to grant toleration to the Roman Catholics, on the one hand, and to the Puritans on the other.

(2) The following table shows the relationship between Arabella Stuart and William Seymour—



4. The Hampton Court Conference — The Puritans, though the king disliked them, were the strongest and most numerous party in Parliament, and they were determined to make all the use they could of their power. A body of them met James on his way to London, bearing in their hands a long roll of paper, which they called the 'Millenary Petition,' and in which they set forth that a thousand¹ ministers were "groaning under a common burden of human rites and ceremonies." The petition was also filled with complaints against the Church. To settle these differences between the Puritans and the Churchmen, James, who threw himself into the arms of the High Church party, summoned a conference of the leading men¹ of both parties. The conference met at Hampton Court, a beautiful village on the Thames, where Cardinal Wolsey had, in the sixteenth century, built himself a palace, which he afterwards presented to his master, Henry. James himself took the chair at this conference, and being well armed with all kinds of theological learning, and fond of theological discussions, he joined in the debates, and effectively put to silence the oratory of the Puritan divines. He saw, or thought he saw, the republican tendency of the Puritan party, and he maintained that the Church must be ruled on the same principles and in the same manner as the State. He was never tired of reiterating his favourite formula, "No bishop, no king" *to repeat again and again*

(i) The "Conference" was to a large extent a sham. For James had, before the Conference, held a conversation with the Bishops, and agreed with them as to how much (or rather how little) he should do for the Puritans. After the Conference, he said, "I will make them conform, or I will hurry them out of the land."

(ii) "Royalty never displayed itself in a more undignified manner. Episcopacy never degraded itself more by a servile flattery of royalty. Harrington, who was present, says, 'The king talked much Latin, and disputed with Dr Reynolds, but he rather used upbraidings than argument, and told the petitioners that they wanted to strip Christ again, and bade them away with their snivelling. The bishops seemed much pleased, and said his majesty spoke by the power of inspiration.' — KNIGHT

Bancroft Bishop of London fell on his knees and exclaimed "I protest my heart melteth for joy that Almighty God of His singular mercy, has given us such a king as since Christ's time hath not been."

5 The Bible — The only good fruit of this Conference was the new translation of the Bible. Forty-seven divines, Episcopalian and

¹ Only 750 actually signed

Puritan¹, were engaged on the work for three years. The basis of this new version was Tyndale's scattered translations of different parts of the Bible, which had been collected, edited, and completed by his friend Miles Coverdale. Coverdale's version had been re-edited by Archbishop Parker and others, and published as the *Bishops' Bible*, and the new translators, though constantly examining and comparing the original Hebrew and Greek, kept as close to the language, style, and rhythm of these previous versions as they possibly could. The new translation appeared in 1611, and it is still the version in which we read

Authorised
Version
published
1611

(i) "England became the people of a book, and that book was the Bible. It was as yet the one English book which was familiar to every Englishman. It was read at churches and read at home, and everywhere its words as they fell on ears which custom had not deadened to their force and beauty, kindled a startling enthusiasm — GREEN

(ii) "As a mere literary monument, the English version of the Bible remains the noblest example of the English tongue. Its perpetual use made it from the instant of its appearance the standard of our language — GREEN

6 The Gunpowder Plot, Nov 5, 1605 — The Roman Catholics had cherished strong hopes, not only of freedom from persecution, but of seeing their religion once more established by law, and James certainly did not allow them to be molested during the first year of his reign. But, soon after, the persecution began again, and with greater bitterness and severity than ever, and six thousand Catholic recusants¹ were brought before the courts in one single year. They now saw what the promises of James were worth. Driven to despair, and with no hope of help from abroad, a small band of them came to the desperate resolution of destroying, at one terrible blow, both Parliament and King. Robert Catesby — a Northamptonshire gentleman — was the chief ringleader. After disposing of the King, the Lords, and the Commons, Catesby and his followers were to make for the country, raise the Roman Catholic nobility and gentry, and proclaim one of the king's younger children. A vacant cellar under the Houses of Parliament was hired. Thirty-six barrels of gunpowder were piled against the wall and covered with fagots of firewood, and Guy Fawkes, a Yorkshire gentleman, who had served in the Spanish army, was induced to carry

Gunpowder
Plot
1605

¹ Persons who refused to go to church (i.e. to the Episcopal church)

out the dark and desperate design. Everything was ready, the king was to open Parliament on the 5th of November, and on that night the mine was to be fired. Fawkes was ready in the cellar with his lantern and a slow match. An anonymous letter to Lord Montague, who was a Roman Catholic peer, warning him to keep away from the House on that day, as "the Parliament shall receive a terrible blow, and shall not see who hurts them," was shown to Cecil, who laid it before the Council. The king guessed that gunpowder was meant. A search was made on the 4th, and Fawkes and the gunpowder were both discovered in the cellar.

(i) James was foolish enough to put in force an old law against the Catholics, and to exact a fine of £20 a month for non attendance at church, and even to demand the arrears due during a time when the law itself was in abeyance! Those Catholics who had land forfeited it, those who had none lost their goods and chattels. Many were ruined—Catesby, the originator of the Gunpowder Plot, among them. "The mere fact of saying the mass was sufficient to bring the priest under the penalties of treason, and those penalties were extended to all who should assist or comfort him."

(ii) The letter seems to have been written by Francis Tresham, the brother in law of Lord Montague.

(iii) The theory in Elizabeth's time was that the English Church was the English Nation in its religious aspect, but this was no longer true as regards either the Catholics or the Puritans.

7 The Results of the Plot—The other conspirators fled, they were chased from county to county, some of them were sabred at Holbeach House in Worcestershire, others were captured and put to death as traitors, Fawkes was tortured on the rack, but no degree of agony or prolongation of pain could extort from him a single syllable against any other person. This horrible project made the condition of the Roman Catholics much worse than it had ever been, "a frenzy of horror and dread" filled and shook the minds of English Protestants all over the land, new statutes were passed against the Catholics, and only those who were rich enough to bribe the courtiers could escape the penalties of being recusants. Even the Queen herself did not disdain to finger their bribes. No Roman Catholic was allowed to live in London, no one could be a lawyer or a doctor. In fact, the Catholics were practically outlawed. A new oath was also devised, which compelled them to renounce in the strongest terms the doctrine that princes who had been excommunicated by the Pope could be deposed or put to death by their own subjects. This oath

broke up the Catholics into two parties—the one willing to take it, and the other, with the approval of the reigning Pope, Paul the Fifth, sternly refusing to take any such oath upon their conscience

(i) "Catholic recusants were deprived of nearly all their civil rights, heavy fines were levied if their children remained unchristened, and if they absented themselves from church while, if the children were sent abroad to be educated, they became incapable of inheriting, and their property passed to the nearest Protestant successor. They were all, too, by the mere fact of their being Catholics, excommunicated" —
FRANK BRIGHT

(ii) From this time began the long series of "Catholic Disabilities." From this time, too, arose the custom in England of ascribing every misfortune that happened to the "malice and wickedness" of the Catholics. Thus the fire of London in 1666 was attributed to them, and an inscription to this effect was placed on "London Pillar" better known as "The Monument." It is to this that Pope, himself a Roman Catholic, alludes when he says —

"Where London's column, pointing to the skies,
Like a tall bully, lifts the head and lies."

8 Ireland (i)—The Plantations—Henry VIII had had a scheme to settle in different parts of Ireland one family from every parish in England, but it was never carried out. Chance threw in James's way a speedier and surer mode of colonisation. Two powerful earls in the large province of Ulster, the Earl of Tyrone and the Earl of Tyreconnel, made an attempt, soon after the accession of King James, to throw off the English yoke, and to make themselves independent. Their conspiracy was discovered, they were attainted of treason, and fled to Spain. Their lands were forfeited, and in this way about two million acres of land fell to the English crown. Thus it happened that in 1608 the greater part of Ulster came into the hands of James, who granted portions of it to English and Scotch settlers, whose settlements were called *plantations*. To raise funds for their protection, the king invented the new title of *Baronet*, which he sold for £1080, a sum which was considered equal to the support of thirty soldiers for three years. A large tract of land was granted to the citizens of London, which they still possess, and which goes by the name of Londonderry. The system of "planting" was extended to Leinster, but the confiscation of their lands left in the hearts of the Irish landowners a deep, strong, and rankling sense of injustice, which has not died out even in the present day. The native owners were turned adrift, their followers—called *septs* or clans—were

carried away to other parts of the island, and the memory of their wrongs lives even now in wild song or well-known story or family tradition—Much the same policy was carried out in the Highlands of Scotland. Argyll and Huntly were intrusted with full powers to “plant” and settle the Highlands, to root out lawless clans, to keep the chiefs in good order, and to compel them to send their children to school in the Lowlands.

(i) “Extraordinary inducements were held out to English capitalists to settle in the North of Ireland, the Corporation of London received large grants of land in the county of Derry, upon their engagement to spend £20,000 upon the colony, and to build two towns. Hence the cities of Londonderry and Coleraine. —KING

(ii) “The forfeited lands were divided amongst 101 English and Scots, 56 servitors, and 285 natives. Thus was Ulster to become, but not without its periods of fierce contention and of terrible massacre, the most prosperous and enlightened province of Ireland. It became the seat of agricultural and commercial industry. —KING

(iii) “The evicted natives withdrew sullenly to the lands which had been left them by the spoiler, but all faith in English justice had been torn from the minds of the Irishry, and the seed had been sown of that fatal harvest of distrust and disaffection, which was to be reaped through tyranny and massacre in the age to come. —GREEN

9 Ireland (ii)—The Lord-Deputy of Ireland during this reign was Sir Arthur Chichester, afterwards Lord Chichester of Belfast. He was one of the best and most reasonable Englishmen who have ever held rule in Ireland. In 1605 he abolished martial law in that country, issued orders for the protection of the poor, and introduced the English laws and customs relating to the holding of land. He proposed to settle Ulster by giving the first choice of land to the Irish natives, and after they were satisfied, the remainder to English and Scotch colonists. But this just and sensible arrangement was upset in London, the forfeited country in Ulster was “treated as a sheet of white paper”, and the native Irish were deported to the worst and most barren parts of the country. He was ordered to drive the Irish by persecution into the Protestant churches, but he steadfastly declined this base kind of work, and was recalled from his post. The persecutions for religion and the deprivation of their lands left in the minds of Irishmen feelings and memories that were handed down from father to son, and sowed the seeds of a rebellious spirit that is not yet dead.

(i) “Baronets were first created by James I. in 1611, when, being in want of money for the support of the army in Ulster, he offered the title of *baronet* to all who would

pay into the Exchequer £1080. These baronetcies were ostensibly created for the military defence of the Pale

(H) "The Pale was the part of Ireland where English law had force. It was also called 'the English land.' Battered by the crown, 'cessed' by the Parliament, subjected by their lords at once to feudal dues and to tribal impositions, plundered by corrupt judges and extortionate deputies, blackmailed by the Irish in time of peace, and harried by both sides in time of war, the dweller in the Pale was probably the most wretched of all the wretched inhabitants of Ireland."—*Low and Pearsall's Dictionary of English History*

✓10 James and his Parliaments —The reign of James was almost one long quarrel with the House of Commons. The Puritan party was strong in the House of Commons, and the sense of the rights and privileges of Parliament had always been strong in English representatives. James and his Parliaments held very different views both in politics and in religion, and their relations from the first had always been strained and untrusting. They were determined to have their old traditional English rights and freedoms, he strove for absolute power. He asked them for money, and they told him to send away his favourites. This struggle, which was prolonged into the next reign, broke up the almost absolute monarchy established by the Tudors, gradually destroyed the power of Charles, resulted in a republic, and finally brought about what is called constitutional government in Great Britain. James, with his notions of divine right, would have gladly done without Parliament altogether, but, since he came to England, he had got into the habit of spending too much money, and he had constantly to go begging to the House of Commons for new supplies. That House now began to act upon the principle, which is one of the corner stones of the British constitution, "No supplies until grievances have been redressed." James, finding his way stopped here, had recourse to every base plan for raising money. He extorted benevolences, he sold titles of nobility, he demanded purveyances,¹ he re-established monopolies. From 1610 to 1614 James ruled without a parliament. In 1614 his need of money compelled him to summon a new House, and in this Parliament sat some who were afterwards leaders in the great struggle, among them John Pym and Sir John Elliot. When the king asked for supplies, they demanded that he should give up his practice of illegal

¹ Right of maintenance for himself and court in whatever part of the country they are travelling. The designation "Purveyor to Her Majesty" is now all that remains of this custom.

taxation by Impositions; but his only reply was to dismiss them, and to shut up four of the leading members in the Tower. For the next seven years he ruled as an absolute monarch.

(i) Servile judges decided, in a case brought before them in 1608, that the king had the power to regulate the Customs duties. Accordingly, Cecil had a "Book of Rates" prepared and published, which increased these duties to a large amount. The additions made to the duties by Cecil for the purpose of getting money for the king without the aid of Parliament were called *Impositions*. These Impositions, then, were not laid on by the authority of Parliament, but "under the Great Seal." When the Commons disputed them, the king commanded the Commons not to discuss a question "which touched his prerogative."

(ii) "The commerce of the country had become an important source of its wealth and, if the king could tax merchandise without the consent of Parliament, the one great restraint upon despotic power would soon be swept away." — KNOTT

(iii) The laws of Elizabeth's Parliament regarding monopolies were evaded by granting them, not to individuals, but to companies.

(iv) On several occasions, James stated, in a perfectly plain manner, his own theory regarding kings and parliaments. In one of his books, "the True Law of Free Monarchies," he says: "Although a good king will frame all his actions to be according to law, yet he is not bound thereto, but of his own will, and for example giving to his subjects." And when the Commons declared that freedom of speech was their "ancient and undoubted right," James replied that all their rights and privileges were derived from "the grace and permission of his ancestors and himself."

(v) James's reasoning went in this way: (i) The king rules by divine right, his person is sacred, his will is law, there is no law but his will. (ii) The people are the property of the king, they may be allowed to take part, by their representatives, in the work of government, how much and how far depends entirely on the gracious pleasure of the king. (iii) When the Parliament or "National Council" passes a law, the king is not bound by it, nor need the king govern with and by parliaments except in so far as he chooses. (iv) The king is not bound to keep his word to his subjects, but subjects are bound to keep their promises to the king.

11 The Growing Power of Parliament—In 1621 the third Parliament of James was summoned, and this time it began an attack upon monopolies and those who held them. It also struck at court favourites, and at those who corrupted the administration of justice. It struck at the highest legal personage in the realm. This was no other than the great Baron, one of the greatest thinkers and philosophers that ever lived, who had been Lord High Chancellor since the year 1618, and who had received bribes even when acting as a judge. A bill containing twenty-two counts was brought against him in the House of Lords. He confessed his guilt, was dismissed

from his office, ordered to pay £40,000, and to be imprisoned¹ in the Tower during the king's pleasure. In the same year the House of Commons entered in its journals a motion, that "in the handling of the business of the State, every member of this House hath, and of right ought to have, freedom of speech to propound, treat, and reason ^{it,} about the same." James sent for the journals, and tore out the motion with his own hand, "I will govern," he cried, "according to the common ~~weal~~, but not according to the common will."

(1) Bacon was proceeded against by Impeachment. In this process, the Commons are the accusing party, and the Lords are the judges.

(11) "The charge," says Professor Gardiner, "that Bacon knowingly and corruptly sold or delayed justice falls entirely to the ground. It seems to have been the practice in these times for both parties to a suit to send presents to the judge. Bacon saw that the attack came from his political enemies, and that the Court could not save him, to ensure a lenient sentence he submitted. He said himself 'I was the justest judge that was in England these fifty years' but it was the justest censure in Parliament that was there these two hundred years."

12 Foreign Relations — James was as little successful in his relations with foreign powers as he was in his relations with his subjects. In the beginning of the Thirty Years' War, Frederick v, Elector Palatine (who had married Elizabeth, James's only daughter), was offered the crown of Bohemia by the leaders of the Protestant party. The English people were eager to help the Elector and the Protestant cause in Europe, but James, who was in great dread of the power and influence of Spain, determined to remain neutral. He did indeed send a small number of men to help his son-in-law, but the Elector was driven out of the Palatinate. When the English people loudly expressed their dissatisfaction, the king told the Commons that the discussion of such matters touched on his prerogative, and he issued a proclamation "forbidding all men to speak of state affairs." — James was eager that Charles, now his only son (for Prince Henry had died in 1612) should marry the Infanta of Spain. The country was strongly against this marriage, for it was felt that it would lead to increased liberties and indulgences for the Roman Catholics. However, a "Secret Treaty" of marriage was drawn up, and one clause in that treaty insisted on the restoration of the Palatinate to James's son-in-law. Charles and Buckingham made a secret journey in disguise to Madrid, where all seemed to go well with his suit, but the agree-

¹ The fine was remitted and he was released in two days.

ment for the marriage was finally broken off. The year after, in 1624, war was declared against Spain, Parliament voted subsidies, and an army was raised, which, however, was never sent to Spain. Charles, not long after, married Henrietta Maria, daughter of Henry IV of France.

(i) The Palatinate is a fertile district on the left bank of the Rhine, and south of Mainz. It is now an appanage of the crown of Bavaria. *a promotion for you*

The revolt of the Dutchmen was the cause of the "Thirty Years War" (1618-48) in which the great names of Wallenstein, Tilly and Gustavus Adolphus are conspicuous. *Charles's*

(ii) Charles in his journey to Madrid, took the name of John Smith, Buckingham was Thomas Smith. James wrote of them as 'sweet boys and dear venturesome Knights worthy to be put in a new romance.' (When Louis Philippe fled from Paris in 1848 and crossed to Newhaven, he travelled under the name of Mr. William Smith.)

(iii) James's general policy of peace with Spain was not popular in the country. English seamen had made a great deal of money in Elizabeth's time by capturing the treasure ships bound from South America to Spain, laden with bullion, by attacking and plundering Spanish towns, and by a kind of piracy on the high seas, and the people had no wish to be at peace with Spain, as long as there was a chance of carrying on this lucrative game.

13 The King's Favourites — Most of the Scottish nobility and gentry followed the court to London, and spent there the money which they drew from their Scotch estates. So numerous were the Scottish gentlemen, and so rapidly were they ennobled, that an Englishman announced the discovery of an "Art of Memory," which would enable people to remember the new titles as well as the old names. Among these was Robert Carr, upon whom the king heaped every office and honour, whom he created Earl of Somerset and who was all-powerful at court for several years. He was convicted of poisoning an acquaintance who had opposed the divorce of a lady he wished to marry, was disgraced, and died in extreme poverty. The king's next favourite was George Villiers, a handsome young Englishman, whom James created Duke of Buckingham. These two personages treated each other with the coarsest familiarity. James was accustomed to hug and kiss Villiers, and Villiers did what he pleased at court and in the Government. He advised James in his foreign relations, and was especially favourable to the alliance with Spain, while James himself was eager to marry his son Prince Charles to the Infanta, and for this aim would have sacrificed every thing. The Spanish court demanded the abrogation of the penal law

against the Catholics, and this was granted, they asked a Catholic household for the Infanta—this was complied with, they required that the prince's children should be brought up in the Catholic faith, and this too was yielded. No sacrifice on the part of James seemed to him unreasonable. Among other good and precious things he sacrificed the life of Raleigh.

✓ (i) It is with the death of Cecil that the rule of statesmen comes to an end in this reign, and the ascendancy of favourites begins. During Cecil's life, Elizabeth's foreign policy—alliance with the United Provinces of the Low Countries, support of Protestantism on the Continent, and friendship with France—was maintained. After his death, James favoured friendship with Spain.

↳ (ii) "When Carr, a raw Scotch lad, had broken his leg in the tilting yard, the king watched over his recovery, placed him about his person, pinched his cheek, taught him Latin, bestowed on him forfeited lands, and created him Viscount Rochester."

(iii) King James, to fill his empty pockets, had put up a number of vacant offices for sale, and the office of cup bearer was purchased by George Villiers, a gentleman of Leicestershire. He never was a statesman, and his friendship proved very hurtful to Charles I. The royal bounty made him one of the richest noblemen in England, and all the patronage of the court was in his hands.

↳ (iv) Under the direction of Villiers, the expenses of the court trebled themselves, and the want of money compelled James to summon his second Parliament in 1614. It was called "The Addled Parliament," because it was dissolved without having got through any business.

✓ 14. The Execution of Raleigh.—This adventurous knight had already lain nearly thirteen years in the Tower, where he had spent his time writing a *History of the World*, when he offered, as the price of his freedom, to bring to James a cargo of gold from some mines he knew of in the north of South America. The bait was too tempting to the needy and greedy king. Raleigh was set free and provided with fourteen vessels for the expedition, but he found the Spaniards everywhere opposing him. The reason was that James sent word privately to the Spanish ambassador. Raleigh attacked and burnt down the Spanish town of St. Thomas, but had to return, after losing his son, with broken heart and "broken brains," and with his purpose unfulfilled. The Spaniards accused him to the king of having acted as a pirate, and James offered to give him up to them, but, instead of this, he sank to a lower depth, acted as executioner for Spain, and had Raleigh put to death at the block,—not for any recent crime, but under the original sentence which had

Raleigh's
Guiana ex-
pedition
1616

been passed upon him sixteen years before James had committed many mean acts, but this was probably the meanest, the most cold-blooded and dastardly of all he had ever perpetrated.

(i) The gold mine was in Guiana, on the Orinoco !

(ii) ' It was a bitter morning, and the Sheriff proposed that he should descend from the scaffold and warm himself. 'No, good Mr. Sheriff, let us despatch, for within this quarter of an hour my ague will come upon me, and, if I be not dead before that, my enemies will say I quake for fear.' Before kneeling down, he took the axe in his hand, felt the edge, kissed the blade, and said to the Sheriff, 'Try a sharp medicine, but a sound cure for all diseases.' So died the last of Elizabeth's heroes"—KING

(iii) Raleigh had always been a bitter foe to Spain, the people of England hated Spain, and his execution called forth the deepest indignation of the people, who felt that so noble a life had been sacrificed to the Spanish court.

(iv) When Raleigh was in prison, the plan of colonising Virginia was taken up by the Virginia Company. Captain John Smith, who married Pocahontas, the daughter of an Indian chief, was the real founder of the United States.

✓ 15 Scotland under James—One good effect of the union of the two crowns was that Englishmen and Scotchmen no longer looked upon each other as aliens¹. They could also inherit property in either country—James had never really liked Presbyterianism, and he determined to restore Episcopacy in Scotland. Accordingly, in 1606, the Estates or Scottish Parliament passed an act for restoring the office of bishop, and bringing back the bishops to their sees,² and bishops were nominated to thirteen sees in 1610;—Many of the Scotch, driven away by poverty, sought new homes across the seas—some in the old home, the original Scotia, now called Ulster, others in a new Scotland, to which they gave the name Nova Scotia. The colony to New Scotland was led by Sir William Alexander, afterwards Earl of Stirling, and every adventurer who was willing to take up so much land, clear it, and defend it against the neighbouring French settlers, was rewarded with the rank and title of baronet.

(i) It was easy enough to make bishops, the difficulty was where to get the endowments for them. The Scottish nobles in their pretended eagerness for the Reformation, had seized the Church lands—"secularised" them, as they called it and they declined to give them back.

(ii) In Scotland, too, the king was determined to enforce his maxim of "No bishop, no king." This was the seed of great troubles in the next reign.

¹ Foreigners

² A form of the word *siege* as sent

✓16 The Death of James—James died of ague on the 27th of March 1625. He was the author of many works in prose and in verse, and on all sorts of subjects, from treatises on divinity down to a Counterblast against Tobacco. He was very fond of cock-fighting, bear-baiting, and other coarse and degrading amusements, and though he piqued himself on his profound knowledge of what he called "kingcraft," he left the actual management of State business to his ministers, and used to say that, rather than sit a day at the council table, he would go back to his native country,—an awful threat! He took the title of *King of Great Britain*, but England and Scotland were still separate countries in all respects, except that both happened to have one king. "His generosity," says Hume, "bordered on profusion, his learning on pedantry, his pacific disposition on pusillanimity, his wisdom on cunning, and his friendship on light fancy and boyish fondness." *cowardliness*

(i) The full title taken by James was King of Great Britain, France and Ireland
erision of opinion

(ii) "With a thorough dislike of dogmatism in others, James was himself the most dogmatic of men. He had not, as Elizabeth had, that intuitive perception of the popular feeling which stood her in such stead during her long career. —GARDNER
simple inspection

(iii) From his combination of learning with an almost complete absence of common sense, he was generally called "the wisest fool in Christendom"

(iv) "James wasted his revenues in lavish grants to unworthy favourites. He almost wholly neglected the business of the state for he was hunting, bolstered up on an ambling palfrey, or he was writing fanatic treatises which nobody read, or he was moving by easy journeys from his palace of Richmond to his palace of Windsor, or in triumphal procession in his state barge from Greenwich to Whitehall." —KNIGHT
to move

17 The Work of Parliament—The reign of James I marks the beginning of the long struggle for the supremacy of the House of Commons. Under the Plantagenets, the House of Lords was the more powerful body, from the accession of the Stuarts, the House of Commons took the first place. The Tudors had always had a true perception of the feelings of the English people, got on with their Parliaments as best they might, and never troubled their heads about formulating any theory about their own authority. The Stuarts knew little and cared less about the national feelings and desires, they set themselves steadily to oppose the House of Commons, and their heads were filled with the theory of the "Divine Right of Kings." The First Parliament of James met in 1604. It displayed a

temper far from submissive. It stood up in defence of its privileges it declared its right to control the election of its own members, and also the right of its members to freedom from arrest. After the Gunpowder Plot of 1605, it passed severe laws against the Catholics, and in 1610 it issued a remonstrance against the Impositions, in spite of the declaration by the Court of Exchequer that these Impositions were "within the rights" of the king. There was no Parliament from 1610 to 1614. In this latter year the Second Parliament met. The king asked for a supply, the Commons asked to have the Impositions removed, neither side would move an inch, and Parliament was dissolved without having done any business. Hence its name of "The Addled Parliament." But it was in this Parliament that three distinguished men made their first appearance—John Pym, Thomas Wentworth, and John Eliot. For seven years James ruled without a Parliament, depending chiefly on the advice of his chief favourite, Buckingham. At length, in 1621, the Third Parliament met. The House of Commons entertained a deep and settled distrust of the policy of James both at home and abroad. It favoured war for the recovery of the Palatinate, and the Commons "lifted their hats as high as they could hold them." It swept away all monopolies, which had been revived under Buckingham, and it revived the old and forgotten right of impeachment. The great Lord Chancellor Bacon was the chief victim. It was out of the Journals of this Parliament that the king tore several leaves with his own hand—an act of which a Tudor would not have even dreamed. The year after, in 1622, Parliament was dissolved, and Pym and Selden were thrown into the Tower. Two years after, in 1624, the Fourth Parliament of James was summoned, and it willingly voted supplies for a war with Spain. But it did a great deal more than this. It declared all monopolies illegal, and it impeached the Earl of Middlesex, Lord Treasurer of England. So daring and so confident of its own power had the House of Commons become.

(i) Elizabeth, by her thrift, made herself almost independent of Parliament, James, by his reckless expenditure, put himself more and more at the mercy of the House of Commons.

(ii) The House of Commons was eager to go to war with Spain, in defence of Frederick the Elector and his dominion of Palatinate. "The Parliament had no confidence in a king who shuddered at a drawn sword."

(iii) "The struggle which was to be fought out in the battle field, twenty years afterwards, was already commenced in a most unmistakable manner. It was a contest for first principles. England was a Constitutional Monarchy or a Despotism." The struggle lasted eighty five years, from 1603 to 1688

(iv) The central question in dispute between James and his Parliament—and afterwards between Charles and his Parliament—was the right of taxation. If the king had a right to impose what taxes he pleased, there was an end of Parliamentary government.

(v) The Impositions were additions made to the usual customs of Tonnage and Poundage. Tonnage and Poundage had been granted the king *for life* but the rates upon each article of commerce had been recorded in a book called the 'Book of Rates'. To these customary rates James had made additions or "Impositions," without the authority of Parliament and against this the House of Commons protested unceasingly.

Tonnage was a tax of from 1s 6d to 3s—according to quality—per tun of wine or liquor imported or exported and poundage was a tax of from 6d to 1s on goods sold by weight.

(vi) The following are the chief points of difference between the Governments of

JAMES I

and

QUEEN VICTORIA

James chose his own Ministers—not always because they were the ablest	1 The House of Commons virtually chooses the Queen's Ministers, but the Queen "sends for them"
Parliament met, or did not meet, whenever the king pleased	2 Parliament meets every year
James's Ministers did what he bade them, and did not explain or defend their actions to Parliament.	3 The Queen's Ministers have to explain, to defend, and to justify their acts and measures to Parliament.
James's income came from (i) the Crown lands, (ii) the Feudal Dues ¹ , and (iii) Tonnage and Poundage (granted to him for life)	4 The Queen's income comes from the "Civil List", and additions for her family are asked from and granted by the House of Commons.
James could veto any bill, and often used this power <i>reject</i>	5 The Queen has never vetoed any bill, though she has the power

18 Great Men.—The most distinguished adventurer—using the word in its best sense—of this reign was Sir Walter Raleigh, a historian, a poet, and a courtier, and one of the founders of the British Empire. Among statesmen, the only prominent person was Robert Cecil, Earl of Salisbury, the worthy son of Queen Elizabeth's chief adviser. After his death the rule of favourites began—of

¹ According to the ancient practice of English sovereigns an aid was demanded when the king's eldest son was knighted. This demand was made when James's son Henry was made Prince of Wales in 1610. The tax was paid but with universal grumblings.

favourites such as Robert Carr, Earl of Somerset, and George Villiers, Duke of Buckingham. Among great members of Parliament the names of John Selden and John Pym stand out conspicuously as the names of men who displayed the highest courage combined with the keenest intelligence. Among lawyers, the chief name of distinction is that of Edward Coke, who had the courage to resist the will of the king in the interest of constitutional law. But by far the greatest mind in this reign was Francis Bacon, a great lawyer, a profound thinker, a powerful writer and the founder of the inductive method of inquiry into the nature of physical phenomena.

(i) Balclagh was one of the four lords of the British Empire by his settlement of Virginia (so called after the "Virgin Queen"). The settlement on which Balclagh spent £20,000 of his own money, was at first a failure, but it led to the successful efforts of Captain John Smith in 1607.

(ii) "Cecil," says Lord Bacon, "was a fit man to keep things from growing worse, but no very fit man to reduce things to be much better."

(iii) John Selden was a very learned and very thoughtful man. He was "the great dictator of learning of the English nation" in this reign. He sat in the Parliament of 1621, and took part in the impeachment of Buckingham. He also played a very distinguished part in the reign of Charles. His library now forms parts of the Bodleian at Oxford.

(iv) John Pym, the leader of the Parliamentary party, entered Parliament in 1614. He was one of the managers of Buckingham's impeachment in the second Parliament of Charles. "He seemed," says Clarendon, "to all men to have the greatest influence upon the House of Commons of any man."

(v) Edward Coke was Lord Chief-Justice of England, and an able writer on law. He was dismissed in 1615, because he decided a case against the will of the king. He entered Parliament in 1621, and distinguished himself by opposing monopolists and defending the rights of the Commons.

19 Social Facts—In the time of James, just as much as in any previous period, the laws of health—the virtues of fresh air and of cold water—were either misunderstood or unknown. The streets of towns were too narrow, and of drainage there was little or none. Hence the Plague was always present, either in a latent or in a combatant form. In the first year of James's reign, thirty thousand people died of the Plague in London alone. But, ten years after, in the year 1613, a successful attempt was made to give to London a proper and never-failing supply of water. Sir Hugh Middleton captured a number of small streams that flowed southwards from Hertfordshire, collected them into one, and brought them—under the

name of the "New River"—into Islington, a northern suburb of London. Three years before the death of James, the feeling in Parliament and in the public outside had grown so confident in itself, and so eager for political information at home and abroad, that the first newspaper in England was started, and its title was "The Weekly Newes" The nobility began to ride in coaches, and what were called "Sedan Chairs" were introduced.

SHORT CHRONOLOGY AND SUMMARY OF JAMES I'S REIGN

1603 ¹ James I. succeeds to the throne Main Plot and Bye Plot.	1616 (b) Villiers Duke of Buckingham, chief favourite
1604. Hampton Court Conference First Parliament of James	1618 Execution of Raleigh on an old sentence
1605 The Gunpowder Plot.	1620 The <i>Mayflower</i> at New Plymouth. (Beginning of "New England")
1607 Foundation of the British Colo- nial Empire, beginning with Virginia	1621 Third Parliament. (a) Bacon is impeached. (b) The House of Commons protest against the infringement of their ancient liberties (c) The king tears the protest out of the Journal with his own hands
1608 Impositions and "The Book of Rates"	
1611. Order of Baronets.	
1612. Death of Salisbury, "the younger Cecil Carr, chief favourite	1622 Pym, Selden, and others, thrown into the Tower
1674. Second Parliament, or "The Addled Parliament"	1624. Fourth Parliament. Monopolies declared illegal.
1616 (a) Sir W Raleigh is released from the Tower and sent in search of a gold mine	1625 Death of James I

IMPORTANT CONTEMPORARY EVENTS

1610 Murder of Henry IV of France.	1612. The "Scottish Estates" (=Parlia- ment) establish Episcopacy in Scotland.
1611. Ulster "planted" by English and Scottish settlers	1618 Beginning of the Thirty Years War

CHAPTER II

CHARLES THE FIRST

Born 1600 Succeeded (at the age of 24) 1625 Died 1649.
Reigned 24 Years

CHARLES STUART, King of England, Scotland, and Ireland, was the second son of James VI of Scotland and Anne of Denmark. He was born at Dunfermline, in Fifeshire, on the 19th of November 1600, and, on his baptism, he was created Duke of Albany. He married Henrietta Maria, the daughter of Henry IV of France. They had three sons and four daughters. The eldest son was Charles II, the next, James II, the third was Henry, Duke of Gloucester who died in 1660. Of the daughters, Mary, the eldest, married William of Nassau (their son was William of Orange). Charles was beheaded in front of Whitehall Palace on the 30th of January 1649.

CONTEMPORARY SOVEREIGNS

FRANCE
LOUIS XIV, 1643

SPAIN
PHILIP IV, 1621

SWEDEN
GUSTAVUS ADOLPHUS,
1611 1632

1. Charles I, 1625-1649 — Charles was only four-and-twenty when he ascended the throne of England. Two months after his accession he married Henrietta Maria, a daughter of Henry IV of France, and—to the regret of the nation, which was growing Protestant in feeling—a Roman Catholic. The new king was at first most warmly welcomed by the English people. But this feeling soon passed, and the story of his reign is the story of one long quarrel between the king and his Parliaments—a quarrel in which Charles was destined to lose his peace of mind, his happiness, and his life. On the one hand, he had more exalted ideas than even his father of the power of the royal prerogative, he had learned too well the lesson of divine right and passive obedience, while the nation was eager for parliamentary rule and the

liberty of the subject On the other hand, he was too favourable to Roman Catholicism and Episcopacy, while the strongest and most active elements in the nation were sternly Puritanic. He had bad advisers, he hardly knew his own mind, he stooped to intrigue, and even to double-dealing, and he had not the sense or the knowledge to form a correct estimate of the enormous strength of the new forces that were growing up in the nation. His wife, who was one of his advisers, hated the Puritans, and urged him to "rule like a French king." Thus, in the first three years of his reign he had managed so that every branch of the nation—the Lords, the Commons, and the People—stood before him in an attitude of hostility.

(i) Charles, in spite of the promises his father had made to Parliament, agreed to give to his wife a household the free exercise of the ceremonies of their religion, and the education of her children till they were thirteen.

(ii) Charles's chief adviser in the early part of his reign was the "brilliant, but shallow and impulsive, Buckingham.

✓ (iii) Charles's theories regarding the power and prerogative of the crown were more complete and thorough going than even those of his father. On the other hand, his very first Parliament met with the fixed resolve to obtain the completest safeguards for the ancient rights of the nation. The House of Commons consisted chiefly of old English country gentlemen and lawyers—both parties by nature and habit very conservative. In the former the old aristocratic spirit of liberty, which had deserted the court nobles, lived in all its ancient vigour, and the latter were thoroughly acquainted with all the old constitutional precedents.

2 The Struggle—Charles's first public act was to declare war against Spain. To get supplies he called a Parliament. The struggle between King and Parliament began at once, and it took a very simple form. The king wanted money, the Parliament wanted

First
Parliament
1625

removal of grievances. *No Reform—no Supply*, was the simple formula on which they acted. When the king asked for money, the Parliament asked for the removal of

Buckingham. They granted him only £140,000, with tonnage and poundage for one year. He dissolved them in a fortnight—His second Parliament met in 1626, and set to work to impeach Buckingham.

Second
Parliament
1626

He dissolved this Parliament before it had time to pass a single act. "I will not allow," he said, "any of my servants to be questioned among you, much less such as are near to me." To raise money, he had recourse to forced loans, benevolences, and other illegal and arbitrary means.

3 The La Rochelle Expedition—The Duke of Buckingham had quarrelled with Richelieu, the great minister of France and the deadly foe of the Huguenot¹ or French Protestant party. La Rochelle, on the Bay of Biscay, was the stronghold of the Huguenots. Richelieu had built a mole half a mile long across the mouth of the harbour, Buckingham landed his men upon it and tried to fight his way to the mainland, but he was forced to retreat with a loss of more than 1200 men, while the French did not lose a single soldier. The town surrendered to Richelieu, and England

La Rochelle
1627

felt the defeat, the loss of lives and of honour, with the most intense bitterness—The House of Commons declared Buckingham to be the chief cause of all the evils under which the nation suffered. These words thrilled through the heart of the nation, and excited the feelings of all, and when Buckingham was at Portsmouth superintending a second expedition, he was stabbed to the heart by a fanatic, —one John Felton, who had been a lieutenant under him in the campaign of La Rochelle. Private wrongs Felton may have had, but his revenge assumed a look of public justice when the Petition of Right was brought forward. Buckingham was an incapable, frivolous, and vain person—far from being a statesman, quite ignorant of the hopes and desires of the nation, without any power of appreciating the growth of popular forces, and ready from mere caprice or personal feeling to plunge his country into war.

(i) Buckingham himself led the expedition to La Rochelle. He seized the Isle of Rhé. This too was unsuccessful and the populace called the Isle of Rhé the "Isle of Rue."

✓ (ii) The money spent on this expedition was wasted. To get more, Charles had recourse to forced loans. Those who refused to pay had soldiers and sailors billeted on them, the poor were "pressed" for the army and navy.

(iii) When Felton was led through the streets of London, the people cried, "God bless thee, little David!" for he had laid low their Goliath.

4. The Petition of Right—A petty war with France, fomented by his fatal friend the Duke of Buckingham, compelled Charles to call together his third Parliament. In this Parliament were several gentlemen who had suffered fines and imprisonment for refusing to pay the forced loans, and before granting the king a single penny it drew up the famous Petition of Right,

Third
Parliament
1628

which has been termed by Macaulay the *Second Great Charter*. This petition demanded of the king four things that no man should be compelled to pay loan, benevolence, or tax, without consent of Parliament, that no subject should be imprisoned without cause shown, that soldiers and sailors should not be billeted on the people against their will, and that no person should in time of peace be tried by martial law. Charles was forced to assent, and Parliament gave him £400,000.

(i) To carry on the war with Spain, Charles formed an alliance with France. He lent the French eight ships of war. But the French minister, Richelieu, employed the ships, not against the common enemy Spain, but against a private enemy of his own, the French Protestants called Huguenots. This irritated both the English people and the English Parliament.

(ii) To recover their lost popularity, Charles and Buckingham planned an expedition to Cadiz. Lord Wimbledon commanded. It was a complete failure. Ten thousand English troops were landed, they broke into the cellars of sweet wines, hundreds got dead drunk, and the Spaniards "cut off their ears, and pulled out their eyes." The rhyme went round:

"There was a fleet that went to Spain,
When it got there, it came back again."

(iii) "None have gone about to break Parliaments," said Sir John Elliot, "but in the end Parliaments have broken them."

5 New Advisers and New Quarrels—Charles's new advisers were Thomas Wentworth, afterwards Earl of Strafford, and William Laud, then Bishop of London, but who afterwards rose to be Archbishop of Canterbury. They were men of stern will and inflexible purpose—of a very different stamp from the overdressed dandy, Buckingham. The king had several times violated the terms of the Petition of Right, to which he had given his royal assent, and when the third Parliament met in 1629, Sir John Elliot made a speech, in which he pointed out these violations, and made an attack upon the conduct of Laud. When the question before the House came to the vote, the Speaker, Sir John Finch—a creature of the king's—stated that he had received a royal order to adjourn the House. A terrible scene followed. Some members jumped up and locked the door, and laid the keys before the Speaker on the table of the House, two,

The Speaker Denzil Holles and Valentine, held him by force down in his chair, in spite of his tears and cries, and then Holles

1629 read a protest, declaring that any one who should advise the payment of money to the king without the consent of Parlia-

ment, or should voluntarily make any such payment, should be regarded as a capital enemy to the nation and the commonwealth! The king sent for the serjeant of the House,—he was not allowed to go, he sent to them the usher of the House of Lords,—they would not let him in, at length the guard was ordered to go and break open the doors, but the members—after reading their protest—had quietly slipped away. The king at once dissolved Parliament, and told the Lords that he did this because of the “seditions carriage of some vipers, members of the Lower House.” Sir John Elliot and other members were thrown into the Tower. After a time the others submitted, but Elliot died in that prison. Charles made up his mind to govern without a Parliament, and Wentworth and Laud were the very men to show him how to do it.

(i) Oliver Cromwell made his first speech in the Session of 1629

(ii) Sir John Elliot lay in the Tower three years. He contracted a consumption. He wrote to the king “I humbly beseech your Majesty you will command your judges to set me at liberty, that for recovery of my health I may take some fresh air.” The reply was “Not humble enough.”

6 Wentworth and Laud.—The steady purpose of these two men was to make Charles an absolute monarch, and Wentworth in his private letters constantly alluded to their plan under the title of Thorough. A standing army, the strong hand, the king's will and pleasure in place of law—these were the chief elements in their policy. For eleven years—from 1629 to 1640—no Parliament was called. These eleven years were employed by the two men to work out their purpose, and in these eleven years they contrived to ruin their master, and to bring the heads of all three of them to the block. It turned out that Parliament was better able to govern without them than they without Parliament. The power wielded by Wentworth and Laud was exercised through three tribunals—the Star-Chamber, the High Commission Court, and the Council of the North. Lord Wentworth was made President of the Northern Council, which met at York, and thus possessed boundless power over the counties in the north of England, the High Commission Court called to trial all who dared to hold religious opinions which were not approved of by Laud, and the Star-Chamber fined, imprisoned, pilloried¹ and cropped the ears of all who spoke ill

No Parlia-
ment from
1629 to
1640

¹ Placed in the pillory—a high stage on which criminals were publicly exposed to insult, stone throwing and every kind of abuse.

of the policy of the king or declined to pay the money he illegally demanded. A London citizen was severely punished by one of these courts for calling the crest of a nobleman upon the buttons of his livery-servant a goose, instead of a swan. Laud was a stern and uncompromising enemy of all Nonconformists,¹ and they applied to him the title of "Pope of Canterbury." Wentworth had been at first a strong defender of the rights of Parliament, and had indeed brought into the House the plainly-worded motion that "Grievances and supplies should go hand in hand." But when he left them to serve the person and personal wishes of the king, his old fellow member Pym said to him, "You have left us, but we will not leave you whilst you have a head on your shoulders." And he kept his word.

(i) Wentworth was one of the foremost promoters of the Petition of Right, but he was among those who considered that, in obtaining that enough had been obtained from the king, and that it was undesirable further to weaken the power of the Crown. He was raised to the peerage under the title of Viscount Wentworth, and was made President of the Council of the North. Then he was made Lord Deputy of Ireland, without ceasing to be President. It was the death of Buckingham that gave him his opening. He promised, when he took his seat in the Royal Council, to "vindicate the Monarchy for ever from the conditions and restraints of subjects." *to defend*

(ii) Wentworth's policy and constant advice was Economy. In this way, and in this way only, would it be possible to govern without Parliament. Hence he made peace with France and Spain. But the Queen and her partisans were as extravagant as ever.

(iii) "Peace, economy, and arbitrary taxation were to solve the great problem of his policy—how to get money, yet not account for it. —GROOME.

(iv) "Charles had given his assent to the Petition of Right. He was fond of bidding Parliament rely on his 'Royal word', but the thought of his pledge seems never to have troubled him for an instant. —GREEN.

7 Ship-money.—The king's standing and ever-present difficulty was want of money. He had recourse to every means to raise it—chiefly by the help of monopolies.² Coal, salt, iron, soap, leather, tobacco, beer, wine, butter, linen, hops, and buttons, were all placed, for certain large sums of money, in the hands of monopolists. In short, everything needed for daily use in an English household had been sold into the hands of these persons. "They sup in our cup," said a member of the Long Parliament, "they sip in our dish, they sit by our fire, we find them in the dye-vat, the wash-bowls, and the"

¹ Persons who did not conform to the laws about religion or the Church of England as established by the State.

² Right to sell a thing placed in the hands of one person only (from the Greek *monos* alone, and *poles* I sell).

powdering¹ tub, they share with the cutler in his box, they have marked and sealed us from head to foot" But, large as the sums obtained for monopolies were, Charles needed a more regular and trustworthy source of supply And so, in 1634, a "renegade lawyer," Noy, the then Attorney-General, discovered a method of bringing in the necessary funds This was the famous ^{Ship-money} 1634. — plan of Ship-money Ship-money was an old tax, dating as far back as the Danish invasion It was expected to raise a quarter of a million every year There were many objections to it First, it was a war-tax, and at present the country was at peace, secondly, it was imposed on inland counties, which had never before been called upon to pay it, thirdly, the money was going to be applied to the support of a standing army, and not to the fitting out of a fleet, and, lastly, the tax was imposed at the mere will and pleasure of the king, without the consent of Parliament being asked or given The feeling of the nation was strong enough "No Parliament, no Subsidies!" When a person or a corporation pleaded precedent, they were told that "the precedent was obedience." The money was quietly though grudgingly paid, until the feeling of the people found a voice in John Hampden, a country gentleman of Buckinghamshire He declined to pay twenty shillings, the amount due from him as ship-money, and the case was argued before the twelve judges Judgment was given by seven of the judges in favour of the Crown, but Charles lost more than he gained by his victory, and Hampden became the hero of the people and of Parliament

(1) Charles wanted to make Ship-money—which he could rate at whatever height he pleased—a perpetual tax, to be levied by himself, whether Parliament agreed or not. He also quite expected that he never would have a Parliament to inquire into his actions

(11) Charles had many ways of raising money (a) An old statute of Edward III compelled all owners of land to the value of £40 a year "to take up their knighthood" and to pay the usual Knight's fees to the Crown (b) The Royal Forests had been encroached on, and Charles compelled the present owners either to give back the lands, or to pay heavy fines (c) The estates in Ulster conferred on the Corporation of London were confiscated, on the plea that they were mismanaged (d) In defiance of positive laws, monopolies were once more granted It was pretended that these exclusive rights were not technically monopolies, because they were granted to Companies (e) Ship-money

(a) The Knight's fees distressed and irritated the county gentlemen }

- (b) The reclamation of the forests irritated the nobility Buckingham Forest had shrunk by their encroachments from a breadth of sixty miles to a breadth of six.
- (c) The confiscation of the Ulster Estates set the City of London against the king
- (d) There was scarcely an industrious occupation from the sale of coals to the collection of rags that was not made the subject of a monopoly
- (e) We can get a very good idea of the size of our cities in the 17th century from the sums at which they were rated for Ship money

Bristol is rated at	£500	Birmingham not rated at all
Newcastle	£00	Manchester
Preston	40	Sheffield
Liverpool	25	Bradford

(iii) Wentworth wrote from Ireland "In truth, I shall wish Mr Hampden, and others to his likeness, were well whipped into their right senses" But Hampden's case took six weeks of "solemn pleading" in the Exchequer Chamber

8 Scotland.—The Scotch had long been grumbling that Charles had never thought, since he came to the throne, of paying a visit to the country of his forefathers Eight years, however, after his accession, in 1633, Charles, persuaded by their representations, went down to Edinburgh, and was crowned with great pomp in the Abbey Church at Holyrood He was so heartily received by all classes, that nothing he could wish for seemed likely to be rejected When he got back to London, Laud proposed that Episcopacy should be restored in Scotland, the Liturgy introduced, and Presbyterianism abolished. Charles, with his usual want of sense and tact, consented But the opposition was both general and intense The Dean of Edinburgh no sooner opened the new prayer-book in the Cathedral of St Giles, than stools, books, and cushions were hurled at his head the bishop and he had to flee for their lives, and were with difficulty smuggled back to their own homes In keeping with the clumsy and generally too late concessions of Charles, it was discovered that the law made it binding on all persons to *buy* the prayer-book, but not necessarily to *use* it This was in 1637 In 1638, nineteen-twentieths of the Scottish nation had signed the National Covenant, by which they bound themselves to uphold and "to defend the true religion," and to oppose all "innovations on the purity and liberty of the gospel" The popular party now became known as the Covenanters A General Assembly of the Scotch Church met soon after at Glasgow, solemnly excommunicated the bishops, who were called by the Puritans "~~dumb dogs~~, antichristian mushrooms, and limbs of the beast," and abolished Prelacy Charles was not expected to agree, and the Scotch Parliament seized the royal fortresses and stores, made an alliance with

The National
Covenant
1638

France, and sent Alexander Leslie with an army across the Border. Leslie seized Newcastle, and Charles had to call together, early in 1640, his fourth Parliament, which was called the Short ^{The Short} Parliament. They insisted on discussing their grievances, ^{Parliament} and Charles only wanted money. They gave him none, 1640 and he dismissed them after a short sitting of about three weeks.

(i) The General Assembly at Glasgow, which consisted both of ministers (clergy) and of laymen, abolished Episcopacy in 1639.

(ii) "The Scots were thoroughly prepared. The kingdom swarmed with old soldiers who had served Germany in the Thirty Years War, and thus, though Scotland had not been engaged in war for many years, she had at her disposal a veteran force to serve as a nucleus for her untrained levies." — GARDINER *Shirley*
the central mass round which matters revolved
 "Before the door of every captain was a colour bearing the Scottish arms and a legend, in golden letters, For Christ's Crown and Covenant."

(iii) The English troops had no heart to fight, their provisions ran short, their officers were grumblers, the recruits did not care to learn how to shoot (one of them sent a ball into the king's tent), and Charles had to treat for peace. The Treaty was called the Pacification of Berwick.

(iv) The day named by the king for bringing the Liturgy into use in Scotland was the 16th of July 1637. There were riots and mobs, and a common petition called the Great Supplication was sent to the king. In 1638, the Privy Council of Scotland, finding it impossible to treat with a mob, persuaded the malcontents to choose representatives from the nobles, the lesser barons, the clergy, and the burgesses. This committee was known as the Tables. They renewed the Solemn League and Covenant in March.

(v) In 1640 the Scots again appealed to arms, invaded England, fought a battle at Newburn (on the Tyne), and drove the raw English troops before them, and the king summoned the old Magnum Concilium (Council of Peers) at York. The Peers declared for a Parliament, Charles made a truce with the Scots, and called his Fifth (the Long) Parliament together. *a temporary peace bet. the two armies was at*

(vi) The Confession of Faith was drawn up by an assembly of divines, which met at Westminster on the 12th of June 1643.

9 The Long Parliament — This memorable Parliament, the fifth of Charles's reign, met on the 30th of November 1640. The large majority of its members were opposed to the king in politics, and were nonconformists in religion, and the ^{The Long} ^{Parliament} leader of this—the popular party—was the great orator, 1640-53. John Pym. This party, said one of their opponents, "had heads to contrive, tongues to persuade, and hands to execute any mischief." Instead of granting supplies for the war of defence against the Scotch, the Parliament set themselves to undo the tyrannical acts of the past.

eleven years The decision regarding Ship-money was cancelled, the persons thrown into prison by Strafford and Laud were set free, and it was resolved to impeach Strafford himself and to bring him to trial. Strafford was at York at this time, with the army in the north, but the king wrote him to come up to the House, and that no harm should happen either to his person or to his fortune. No sooner had he set foot in the House of Lords than Pym appeared at the bar of it with his impeachment for high treason. The bill of impeachment contained twenty-eight charges

(i) The composition of the new House of Commons was very alarming. Gentlemen who had been imprisoned for refusing to pay forced loans, citizens who had been prosecuted for tonnage and poundage, persons who had opposed the king's government in different ways,—all these were chosen for counties or for boroughs. "For the fifth time during the reign of Charles, the people were looking to a Parliament that should establish the just distinction between an absolute monarchy and a free monarchy."

The Long Parliament—the most memorable parliament that England ever saw—the parliament which for two centuries has been the theme of the most extravagant hatred and the most exaggerated praise—this parliament has the one glory of having rendered it impossible that the Monarchy of England should endure except in alliance with representative freedom.—KNIGHT

(ii) In this Parliament there were, on the Parliamentary side, not only John Pym, but John Hampden, John Selden, and Oliver Cromwell. On the king's side, there were Edward Hyde (afterwards Lord Clarendon), and Lucius Carey (Lord Falkland)

(iii) Pym's speech against Strafford was "an appeal to the rule of law from the rule of will."

10 The Execution of Strafford—The trial began on the 22d of March 1641, in Westminster Hall. Ladies crowded the galleries, the king was there too, seated in a private cabinet behind a curtain. Strafford asked for time to prepare his defence, but he was compelled to answer on the spot, and for fifteen days he struggled with the most wonderful courage, ingenuity, and readiness, against the long array of accusations. Loud cries of sympathy on the one hand, and of intense hatred on the other, burst now and then from every part of the vast hall. At last, the Commons, seeing they could not prove him guilty of treason, took the matter entirely into their own hands, and brought in a Bill of Attainder declaring him guilty. Fifty-nine of the Commons voted against the measure, and their names were posted up in the streets under the heading, "Straffordians, who to save a traitor would betray their country." The one hope for his life lay in the king. The Earl wrote a letter to

Trial of
Strafford
1641

Charles, desiring that he might die rather than be an occasion of further strife in the kingdom, but no true king would have taken him at his word. Charles, however, who had given him his royal word of honour that no Parliament should touch a hair of his head, put his signature to the bill on the 10th of May, saying, with a deep sigh, "The Earl of Strafford is a happier man than I am." When Pym heard that Charles had signed the bill of attainder, he exclaimed, "Has he given us Strafford? Then he can refuse us nothing!" And when Strafford was told of his fate, he quietly said, "Put not your trust in princes, for in them is no salvation." On the 12th of May he walked to the scaffold on Tower Hill, in sight of crowds of exultant foes. "I know how to look death in the face, and the people too," he said to his friends, "I thank God I am no more afraid of death, but as cheerfully put off my doublet at this time as ever I did when I went to bed." When the axe fell, a great shout of joy rent the air, bonfires blazed, the bells clashed out the news, and the people ran about waving their hats, and shouting, "His head is off! his head is off!" With the head of Strafford fell the system of government he had tried to establish, and from that date the fortunes of Charles himself steadily declined.

(i) "So great it was that we can hardly call it the trial of the Earl of Strafford only. The king's affections towards his people and parliament, the future success of this parliament, and the hopes of three kingdoms dependent upon it, were all tried when Strafford was arraigned — MAY *put prisoner upon trial, accus*

(ii) Strafford was tried under a statute of Edward III. It was impossible to prove that he had been guilty of treason against the king, it was difficult to show that he had been guilty of treason against the State, and hence, on the thirteenth day of the trial, Pym moved in the House of Commons that the proceedings should take the form of a Bill of Attainder.

(iii) The Bill of Attainder passed both Houses, Charles himself said in the House of Lords that "my Lord Strafford is not fit hereafter to serve me or the commonwealth in any place of trust—no, not so much as that of a constable." Strafford wrote to Charles not to allow him to stand between the king and his people, and Charles was mean enough to take him at his word.

¹ He walked to the scaffold with the step and manner of a general marching at the head of an army to breathe victory rather than those of a condemned man, to undergo the sentence of death. As he passed the windows of Lambeth prison he asked his blessing and moving on exclaimed, God protect your innocence! Laud fell back insensible.

(iv) A fortnight after the execution of Strafford, a bill for the complete abolition of Episcopacy, called the Root-and-Branch Bill, was brought into the House of Commons.

11 The Crisis — When Parliament assembled after the autumn holidays, they drew up, and passed by a majority of eleven, a docu-

ment called **The Grand Remonstrance**, which they presented to the king, printed, and circulated throughout the country. This document recited all the acts of tyranny and misgovernment which had been committed during the last sixteen years, and sometimes the discussion grew so hot in the House, that threats were made, and swords drawn and kept with points on the floor ready for use. "Had the Remonstrance been rejected," said Cromwell as he was leaving the House, "I would have sold to-morrow all I have in the world, and left England for ever." The king tried to buy over Pym—**King Pym**, as he was called both by his friends and his foes—to his side, he was offered the Chancellorship of the Exchequer, but he declined.—It now entered Charles's unfortunate and ill-advised head to instruct his Attorney-General to impeach five of the foremost members of the House of Commons, and one of the Peers, as guilty of treason in corresponding with the Scots. These were Lord Kimbolton, and Hampden, Pym, Haselrig, Holles, and Strode. They fled into the City. Next day Charles summoned three hundred gentlemen to follow him. Before starting, the Queen said to him, "Go along, you coward, and pull these rascals ^{out} by the ears!" Kissing her, he promised her that he should come back to her within an hour master of his kingdom. Van boast, and ill-omened proceeding! Charles walked down to the House of Commons, left his soldiers at the door (where they eagerly waited for orders to enter, and with threatening gestures asked each other, "When comes the word?") and strode down the middle passage of the House up to the Speaker. "Mr Speaker," he said, "I must for a time borrow your chair!" Cries of "Privilege! Privilege!" rose from different parts of the House. "Treason," replied the king, "has no privilege, and therefore I am come to know if any of the persons accused are here." There was no answer, a dead silence reigned in the House. "Is Mr Pym here?" he went on. Still no answer. Then he turned to the Speaker, Lenthall, and asked whether the five members were in the House. Lenthall fell upon his knees and replied that he had neither eyes to see nor tongue to speak anything save what the House commanded him to say or to see. "Well, well," retorted Charles in a rage, "tis no matter. I think my eyes are as good as another's. My birds are flown, I think, but I do expect you will send them to me." The

**The Grand
Remonstrance
Nov
1641**

**Attempted
Arrest of
Five Members
1642**

long

train-bands of the city and the watermen of London brought back the five members a few days after, from the City to Westminster, in a splendid procession, amidst the cheering of dense crowds, the rattle of musketry, and the roar of cannon. Charles's last word was now played, and on the 10th of January 1642 he left London, never to return to it again until he was brought to St. James's as a prisoner doomed to a terrible death.

(i) 'If Samson embellished the spirit of tyranny, John Pyri stands out for all after-time as the emblem of liberty.'—GERR.

(ii) 'The debate on the Grand Remonstrance was the great trial of strength in the House of Commons. That debate began at five o'clock in the morning of the 22d of November. It went on till that day till it grew dark. Candles were called for. The Remonstrance was adopted by 120 yeas against 148.—K. and his Swords were drawn and 'slept' in the valley of the shadow of death.'

(iii) 'Thousands of the best scholars, merchants, lawyers, farmers, were flying over the Atlantic to seek freedom and purity of religion in the wilderness.'—GERR.

Fair we will their best have stayed in the home / Their fathers of old
 I - they waited and now would all / they wondered how none would uphold
 Then they came at the last; they set their faces / as
 Against the wall to the bend of grass,—the best wind there /—MAYN.

(iv) The whole House followed the five members to the City, and sat daily at Guildhall.

(v) The accused members were brought back to the Parliament Stairs the week after. From London Bridge to Westminster the Thames was covered with boats, pleasure-barges and wherries, dressed with streamers, and some carrying cannon.

12 Civil War—There was nothing for it now but war. Both sides—Cavaliers and Roundheads¹—were exasperated and defiant. Charles hurried with his queen to Dover, and sent her off to Holland with the crown jewels, which she was to sell or pawn to get money for the carrying on of the war. London and the eastern counties,—¹⁶⁴² "the hot bed of Puritanism"—were on the Parliamentary side, the north, the west, and the counties near Wales inclined to the king. The colleges of Oxford and Cambridge melted down their plate and gave it to him, and many of the students and fellows enlisted under his banner. On the 22d of August—a wet, bleak, and stormy day—Charles raised his standard on the Castle Hill at Nottingham. In April he had gone to Hull, the magazine of the north, and demanded its surrender, and the Governor, Sir John Hotham, fell on his knees before the king, but refused to open the gates.—The Earl of Essex took the command of the

Civil War
 begins
 August 22
 1642

¹ Called so because they had their hair cut very short.

Parliamentary army, the Earl of Lindsay was at the head of the royal troops, with Prince Rupert—a nephew of the king's—as his assistant



(i) "The north west of England—in the days when coal and iron combined formed no portion of the national wealth, the rudest and least thickly populated part of the country—took the king's side, whilst the south east, with its fertile lands its commercial and manufacturing activity, and its superabundant wealth was on the side of the Parliament —GARDINER

(ii) The Earl of Essex was the son of Elizabeth's favourite

(iii) Prince Rupert was the son of Elizabeth, Charles's sister who married Frederick, the Elector Palatine. He was only twenty three when Charles made him general of his horse, and he was too ready to take his own way

13 The First Battle—The first battle of the civil war took place at Edgehill, near Banbury, on the 23d of October. Nothing could withstand the dashing charge of Rupert's cavaliers. Whole regiments turned and fled, and the day would have been the king's, had not

Battle of
Edgehill,
October 23
1642

the hot-headed Rupert fallen to plundering the Parliamentary baggage, while the infantry of Essex, led by Essex himself, was restoring the battle. When night closed, neither party had the advantage. But Oliver

Cromwell, a country gentleman from Huntingdonshire, remarked that night to his cousin, John Hampden, that it was "plain that men of religion were wanted to withstand these gentlemen of honour". In February 1643 the queen arrived with four ships, landed at Bridlington in Yorkshire, and the royal army was pushed across the

Trent, and marched into the eastern counties. In June of this year, the blameless and dauntless Hampden was mortally wounded in a skirmish on Chalgrove Field in Berkshire, and in the first battle of Newbury, a man whose heart was solely in his country, and who detested party strife, but felt himself called upon to side with the king—Lucius Carey (Lord Falkland)—fell in the ranks of the Royalist army, repeating the words, "Peace! Peace!" He had often said that he was weary of strife, and that the war was breaking his heart—and thus to him death came as a friend and a relief.

(i) "Your troops," Cromwell said to Hampden, "are most of them old soldiers, and such like of fellows, and their troops are good as you for so, and persons of quality do you think that the spirits of such base and mean fellows will ever be able to encounter gentlemen, that have honour and courage for sale on to them?"

(ii) Lord Falkland was eager for death, and "put himself in the front rank."

"A man who would prefer death when it is to him part and joins the party of peace to the war, is really a danger to the peace, and a danger to the country. It is a dangerous and a dangerous, but the great of many." And a man was killed. —A. W. D.

14. **Marston Moor**—Towards the end of 1643 the English Parliament made an appeal to Scotland for help—incited to this step, partly by the fact that Charles had sent to Ireland for troops and money. The two Parliaments accordingly made a league—on the basis of the abolition of Episcopacy, the establishment of Presbyterianism, and the free power of Parliament. After this league was signed, twenty thousand Scottish troops crossed the Border, and marched on to Marston Moor, not far from York, where they joined the Parliamentary forces. At this spot their combined armies were met by the royal troops. The battle began at seven in the evening of the 2d of July 1644. For the first time, the horse drilled and trained by Cromwell met the dashing and brilliant cavalry of Prince Rupert, the stern, God-fearing "men of religion" met face to face with the gallant "gentlemen of honour", and the victory of the Parliamentary troops—a victory mainly due to Cromwell—was complete. "We never charged," wrote Cromwell, "but we routed the enemy. The left wing, which I commanded, being our own horse, saving a few Scots in our rear, beat all the Prince's horse. God made them as stubble to our swords."

Marston
Moor
1644

(i) Marston Moor was fatal to the king's cause in the North. The king, however, had no success in the west, and compelled the army of Essex to surrender at Lostwithiel (in Cornwall)

(ii) In the end of 1644 was fought the Second Battle of Newbury

15 Oliver Cromwell—Archbishop Laud had been lying in the Tower since 1641, and he was condemned, like Strafford, by a Bill of Attainder in the last month of 1644, and executed on Tower Hill in January 1645—The Puritan party had been gradually growing stronger every year, and, in the Puritan party, the section called the Independents had been slowly but surely coming to the front in Parliament, in the nation, and in the army. Their leader was the famous Oliver Cromwell, who is described by a contemporary—also a member of the House of Commons—as “very ordinarily apparelled in a plain cloth suit, which seemed to have been made by an ill country tailor. His hat was without a hat-band. His stature was of a good size, his sword stuck close to his side, his countenance swollen and reddish, his voice sharp and untunable, and his eloquence full of fervour.” This was the leader of the Independents, or, as they were sometimes called, *Root and Branch Men*. This party carried through the House an Act called the Self-denying Ordinance, by which it was made illegal for any member of Parliament to hold a command in the army. Lords Essex and Manchester were thus removed, young Sir Thomas Fairfax was made commander-in-chief, and Cromwell, in spite of being still in the House, became general of the cavalry.

(i) The execution of Laud was a piece of useless vengeance. The power of his ecclesiastical courts was at an end, his own power was nil. Even the liturgy of the Church of England, which had been tolerated before, was now abolished.

(ii) Cromwell's services were retained by a special Act of Parliament, which was renewed every forty days.

16 The New Model, 1645—Cromwell now carried out the principles on which he had trained his Ironsides to the reorganisation of the whole army, and his plan on this larger scale became known as the New Model. The purpose in this was to bring together twenty thousand “honest,” that is, trustworthy, men, and the army of the New Model consisted chiefly of farmers from the eastern counties, who formed the larger number of its

The New
Model
1645

privates,—both officers and men being strong young fellows, who would permit no swearing or drinking, nor any kind of vice or disorder in their ranks. They sang psalms and hymns as they moved to battle. They were serious, God-fearing men, who lived and died “as ever in their great Taskmaster’s eye”

(i) The principles on which Cromwell had formed his Ironsides were carried out on a larger scale in the ‘New Model’. The one aim was to get together twenty thousand ‘honest’ men. The bulk of those in high command remained men of noble or gentle blood, Montagues, Fortescues, Sidneys, and the like. But side by side with these were seen officers like Ever, who had been a serving man, like Okey, who had been a drayman, or Rainsborough, who had been ‘a shipper at sea’—GREG

(ii) In the New Model, “not a man swears but he pays his twelve pence” *the master of the*

17 The Battle of Naseby—Their character and courage were severely proved on the field of Naseby, not far from Northampton. The king was in high spirits, and eager to fight, Cromwell, in command of a set of “poor, ignorant men,” trusted to “the things that are not” to “bring to nought the things that are” Nothing could resist the charge of the Ironsides

‘Their heads all stooping low, their points all in a row,

Like a whirlwind on the trees, like a deluge on the dikes, *a mound*
Our cuirassiers have burst on the ranks of the accurst, *moment in*
And at a shock have scattered the forest of the pines *it*

They broke the Royalist horse at one charge, they then swept down upon the foot at the very moment when they had gained a victory over the Parliamentarians, the royal reserve fled, the battle was over, and the war was ended at a blow. The artillery, the baggage, and even the royal papers, fell into the hands of the conquerors, and Charles fled for safety and for fresh forces into Wales

(i) By the victory of Naseby, “the war was ended at a blow” “Charles was beaten into utter ruin. He never ventured to lift his head again in the field”

(ii) “The most precious spoil of the day was ‘the king’s cabinet,’ which, when opened, disclosed secrets which more injured his cause than any victory of his enemies.” Foreign princes were asked to send their soldiers to conquer rebel England. The dreaded Papists were to be freed from every restraint on the condition of such assistance—KNIGHT

18 Scotland. Montrose had gained six battles for the king in Scotland, the king’s cause seemed to be growing stronger there; but all these hopes were quickly blighted by the crushing defeat of the Marquis by David Leslie at Philiphaugh, near Selkirk, in 1645

19 **Negotiations**—Charles now began to reopen communications with the Long Parliament. During the war this Parliament had been gradually breaking up into two parties, the one Presbyterian and constitutional, desirous of establishing Presbyterianism, and upholding, while limiting, the power of the king; the other, Independent, and indeed republican, caring little for the throne, and still less for the king who was then sitting upon it. Charles's only chance now was to play the one party off against the other, and this chance he saw clearly. His best hopes seemed to lie on the side of the Presbyterians, and accordingly he gave himself up to the Scottish army at Newark. From this vantage-ground he began to treat with the Parliament. They demanded from the king the complete control of the army and navy for twenty years, the abolition of Episcopacy, and the establishment of a Presbyterian Church. The Scotch urged these terms upon the king with tears, some of his warmest friends earnestly entreated him to accept them, but Charles was playing a game. "I am not without hope," he wrote, "but I shall be able to draw either the Presbyterians or the Independents to side with me for extirpating one another, so that I shall be really king again."

The Scots
leave
England
1646

Soon after, the Scotch gave him up into the hands of the Parliament, and on receiving £400,000 of arrears of pay due to them, they retired across the Tweed. Charles was lodged in Holmby House in Northamptonshire. Here Cornet Joyce, at the head of a troop of horse—acting, it is said, under secret orders from Cromwell—appeared one morning, seized him, and carried him off. "Where is your commission?" said the king. "There, behind me," answered Joyce, and pointed to his sturdy troop. "Believe me," replied Charles, smiling, "your instructions are written in a very legible character."

(i) "Beaten in open warfare, the king now resorted to the more dangerous weapons of craft and intrigue. His ultimate destruction may in a great degree be attributed to the fatal course of endeavouring to win by stratagem what he despaired of attaining by arms—a course which he pursued through so many winding paths after the decisive summer of 1645. —KNIGHT

(ii) Charles was never sincere in his negotiations. He used words, not to convey, but to hide his true meaning. This is proved by a letter of his to Queen Henrietta, dated Oxford, Jan 18, 1646. "Though I have stretched my wits to persuade them to accept of my personal treaty, yet examine my words well, and thou wilt find that I have not engaged myself in anything against my grounds. For, first, I am sure that there can be no scruple as concerning the Church. Then, for Ireland and the militia,

it is true that it may be I give them leave to hope for more than I intended, but my words are only to endeavour to give them satisfaction in either Hallam says
 "Charles had unlappily long been in the habit of perverting his natural acuteness to the mean subterfuges of equivocal language. He forgot that those with whom he was treating would examine his words with the greatest care" meaning equal

20 Charles a Prisoner — He was now a prisoner of the army, but well lodged in the Palace at Hampton Court, and he was still full of hope that the disunion of his enemies would enable him to play the one off against the other. He did this so cleverly, that at last neither side could trust him at all. He began himself to forget where he was, and on what footing he was with each party, while they, on the other hand, could not find out on what ground *they* stood. He was blind and courteous to the Levellers,¹ and sent them away from an interview with him well content, he was just as bland and courteous to "a couchful of Presbyterian priests" who left him immediately after, equally satisfied. He thought neither party "could do without him." Even when events were hastening on to their terrible end, he one day remarked "I have three more cards to play, the worst of which will give me back everything" From Hampton Court he made his escape to Crisbrooke Castle in the Isle of Wight, thinking that the governor, Colonel Hammond, would prove his friend. From Crisbrooke he tried to escape, but this attempt was frustrated, and he was removed to the "dog-lodgings," of Hurst Castle, at the mouth of the Solent. A diversion in his favour was made from Scotland, and a Scottish army, composed of Royalists and Presbyterians, led by the Duke of Hamilton, marched into England. Cromwell met them at Preston and broke them up after a few hours' fighting, fought them again at Wigan and Warrington, and next day most of the army surrendered. When Charles heard the story, he said it was "the worst news that ever came to England." The army was fired with anger against the king.

Charles at
Hampton
Court
1647

Battle of
Preston,
July
1648

(i) Charles's main idea was to play off the two parties—the Presbyterians and the Independents—against each other. The army was on the side of the Independents, the Presbyterians were much the strongest in Parliament. Charles thought that the monarchy was indispensable in England. He said to Ireton and others, "You cannot be without me. You will fail to ruin if I do not sustain you."

On one occasion the king said "I shall play my game as well as I can." Ireton replied "If your Majesty have a game to play you must also give us the liberty to play ours."

¹ A set of men who wished to do away with all *rules* in Church and State and to level everything

(ii) The army came to a terrible resolution "That it is our duty, that, if ever the Lord brings us back again in peace, to call Charles Stuart, that man of blood, to an account for that blood he has shed, and mischief he has done to his utmost, against the Lord's cause and people in these poor nations."

(iii) "He had drawn the sword, and by the sword he perished, for it was the army, and not Parliament, that stood at the back of his judges —GROOME

21 Pride's Purge—The army now marched back to London, full of vengeful feelings against the king, who had given them all this labour, and determined to have a complete stop put to his proceedings. On the 7th of December 1648, Colonel Pride appeared in Westminster Hall, which he filled with his regiment of foot, and took up his post at the door of the House of Commons, with Lord Grey of Groby at his side. He had in his hand a list of members of the Long Parliament who were considered "unfaithful to the public interests"—that is, of those who still wished to treat with the king. As each member came up, Lord Grey gave a sign that he should or should not pass in. Those who were stopped were handed over to the soldiers, who escorted them to a tavern, where they were kept for the night. About a hundred altogether were excluded, but business went on in the House just as if all were present. This clearing out of the members who took the king's side was called Pride's Purge. The Presbyterian majority was cleared out, and the remains of the House left—fifty-three Independents, afterwards known as the Rump—voted that the king should be brought to trial for treason against the Parliament, and, as the House of Lords refused to concur, that House was closed, and a *High Court of Justice* was appointed for the king's trial. The President of the Court was John Bradshaw, and among its more notable members were Cromwell and his son-in-law, Henry Ireton. The Court numbered one hundred and thirty-five members, but only fifty-eight attended all the meetings.

(i) 'By what right do you act?' a member asked. "By the right of the sword," was the reply.

(ii) On the 2d of January 1649, a vote passed the House of Commons that, in making war against Parliament, Charles had been guilty of high treason.

22 The Trial of Charles—On the 19th of January 1649, the king was brought from Windsor in a coach and six to his Palace of St James's. Next day he was carried in a sedan chair to West-

minster Hall, where the High Court of Justice was sitting Sixty-nine members were present, and after they had been called and had answered to their names, Bradshaw ordered the sergeant to bring in the prisoner In silence and gloom the king took the chair that was set for him He did not move his hat, but looked round sternly and contemptuously No one of the sixty-nine uncovered or rose from his seat The clerk of the court is called upon to read the charge, in which the king is termed "a tyrant, traitor, murderer, and public enemy to the good people of this nation" He laughs in the face of the court, he refuses to plead "Where are the Peers," he asks, "who alone can sit in judgment on a Peer?" The trial lasts seven days, amid shouts of "Justice! justice!" from the soldiers, and here and there a bold solitary cry of "God save the King!" Thirty-two witnesses are examined, the king is brought in guilty, the clerk reads the sentence of the court, that his head be severed from his body "and the commissioners testify their unanimous assent by standing up" The king now attempted to speak, "but," says Ludlow, one of the commissioners, "being accounted dead in law, he was not permitted." The names of fifty-nine members of the court were subscribed to the warrant of execution, and "Charles Stuart, king of England," was "to be put to death by the severing of his head from his body," on the "thirtieth day of this instant month of January, between the hours of ten in the morning and five in the afternoon"

Trial of
Charles I.
January
1649

(1) The President of the "High Court of Justice" was John Bradshaw, a cousin of Milton's When the charge of being "a tyrant and a traitor" was read, Charles laughed in the face of the court He then said "I should like to know by what lawful power I am brought here, before I answer your charge Bradshaw's reply was "We are here to-day acting in the name of the people of England Charles "No, sir, I deny this Bradshaw "If you object to the lawfulness of the court, I must tell you that any such objection will be entirely useless You must plead or the court will regard you as confessing the charge" Charles "I see no Lords here Where are the Peers, who alone have power to try the king? I tell you this court is no court before which a king can be tried It has been appointed by a Parliament which is not a Parliament A true Parliament consists of King, Lords, and Commons was this court appointed by such a Parliament?" The legal point made by the king was perfectly sound but these were, in fact, times of revolution, and the court was a revolutionary tribunal

(2) The trial lasted five days, and thirty-two witnesses were examined to prove that Charles had tried to subvert the laws and to introduce arbitrary and tyrannical government

to ruin utterly to corrupt. despotic rule

23 The Execution of Charles—From St James's Palace he walked on that morning—a bitterly cold morning, frost so hard that the Thames was frozen over—surrounded by soldiers, through the leafless avenues of St James's Park, to the Banqueting-Chamber at Whitehall. He had dressed with great care, and had put on two shirts, it was so cold. He left the palace at ten, and remained in his room at Whitehall for three hours engaged in prayer. He then took the sacrament from the hands of his friend Dr Juxon, bishop of London, and declared himself ready. The scaffold was surrounded by soldiers, the streets and house-roofs were black with wondering spectators, Charles walked to his doom with noble and serene dignity, two masked heads-men stood waiting as he ascended the scaffold, his head fell at one blow, and when the executioner lifted it up, with the words, "This is the head of a traitor!" a deep groan of pity broke from the silent and awe-stricken crowd.

Execution
of Charles,
Jan. 30
1649

24. Character of Charles—"Nothing in his life," says a historian, "became him like the leaving of it." "It would be unjust," says Macaulay, "to deny that Charles had some of the qualities of a good, and even of a great, prince." But he was of a warm, and even passionate nature, he was self-willed, impatient of opposition, very unwilling to listen to or to take any advice that did not agree with his own way of thinking, and hence he was quite unfit for the position of a constitutional king. Nor had he the great virtue of sincerity, on the contrary, he was always "playing a game," until even his own friends did not understand him, and he found himself standing alone in the midst of thick-coming dangers. He had not governed well, he had not understood his own circumstances or the new forces that were growing up in the nation, and though his execution was "the work of a small but bold minority," things would never have come to so terrible a pass had it not been for his own wilfulness and weakness. The struggle in this reign was between absolute and constitutional monarchy, and the constitution triumphed

(i) "Vices, other than duplicity, he had none. He was vague, vacillating, obstinate, unable to lead or to be led, superstitious, heedful of omens, unsympathetic and reserved where he did not love, intolerant of opposition to his will. But he was a good husband, a good father, a good churchman—no man so good was ever so bad a king, no man so fallible believed so honestly in his infallibility." —HINDS GROOMER.

(5) "Charles I., himself, Charles, and his friends, were that the royal command of him to remove the king and his son to his next house."

25 The Work of Parliament (1).—The chief work of all King Charles's Parliaments was the assertion of the ancient constitutional rights of the people—an assertion which in time grew into a claim for new and much greater rights than it had ever enjoyed before. The first Parliament met in 1625, and granted tonnage and poundage for one year only, while the usual custom was to confer it on the king for life. It was plain that the House of Commons wished to keep as much power as possible in its own hands. This Parliament was quickly dissolved. The second Parliament met in 1626. Charles tried to keep out his opponents by picking them for sheriff (no sheriff being eligible for Parliament), and by omitting to send a writ to the Earl of Bristol. Both actions were unconstitutional—the first in the spirit, the second both in the spirit and in the letter. This Parliament, instead of granting supplies, set to work to appoint Commissioners (on Privileges, on Religion and on the State of the Country) and to impeach Buckingham. The king soon dissolved it and proceeded to raise money by forced loans and by levying tonnage and poundage, without the consent of Parliament. The third Parliament met in 1628, and was called by Charles only because he was very greatly in need of money. Instead of granting supplies it drew up the PETITION OF RIGHT to which the king was obliged to give his assent. Parliament then granted five subsidies. This Parliament was dissolved in 1629; Sir John Eliot and other members were thrown into the Tower, and for eleven years after, Charles governed the country without the aid of Parliament. Indeed, it is certain that Charles, with the aid of Wentworth (Strafford), and Laud, would have ruled the kingdom despotically to the end of his reign, had circumstances and the temper of the English people permitted him.

26. The Work of Parliament (2).—The Fourth Parliament did not meet till the fiscal year of 1640. The Scots had, in the year before, declared war and marched to the Border. Charles thought that his English Parliament would support him against the Scots; but "King Pym" at once rose and called the attention of the Commons to the numerous illegal acts that had been committed by the Crown in the last eleven years. This Parliament was dissolved

after it had sat for about three weeks, and is hence called the Short Parliament. The Fifth or Long Parliament met in November of the same year. It impeached Lord Strafford, passed the Triennial Act, turned the bishops out of the House of Lords, forced the king to agree that it should neither be adjourned nor dissolved without its own consent, abolished the Courts of Star-Chamber, the Council of the North, and the High Commission Court, and passed various statutes against the levying of ship-money and other illegal taxes. In 1641 it met again, and passed the GRAND REMONSTRANCE. In 1642, the king failing in his attempt to seize a member of the House of Lords and five members of the House of Commons, left London, and the Parliamentary War began. In 1643, the Long Parliament signed the Solemn League and Covenant, and thus joined heart and hand with Scotland. In 1647 Parliament tried to reduce the army, but without success. They then tried to disband it, but the army refused to go home.—In 1648, Colonel Pride expelled the Presbyterian majority from the House of Commons, and only the Independents (fifty-three in number), or “the Rump,” remained. This minority created a “High Court of Justice,” which tried, condemned, and beheaded the king.

(i) The Petition of Right contained four clauses. The most important were (i) No gift, loan, or tax to be paid without authority of Parliament, (ii) no one to be imprisoned contrary to law.

(ii) The Petition of Right is one of the corner stones of constitutional freedom and is indeed a confirmation of Magna Charta. It ranks with Magna Charta (1215), with the Confirmatio Chartarum (1297) and the Habeas Corpus Act (1679).

(iii) The king gave his “assent” to the Petition of Right, but the *form* of assent was altered in the printing office and Charles went on collecting tonnage and poundage as before. This was one of the first acts which shook the confidence of the English people in him.

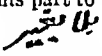
(iv) “The Short Parliament lasted three weeks. the Long Parliament outlasted Charles.”

(v) The Triennial Act contained two main clauses. (i) Parliament must not sit for more than three years. (ii) The kingdom is not to be without a parliament for more than three years.

(vi) In addition to levying ship-money, Charles had collected fines for not taking up knighthood, for having squatted on the royal forests for building houses in London, for pulling them down in the country, etc.

(vii) The Grand Remonstrance was not so much an Act of Parliament, as an Appeal to the English people against the king. It contained 206 clauses, and recited all the unconstitutional acts of the king's government since the first year of the reign.

27 Great Men—Among the prominent men of this reign who were advisers of the king are **George Villiers**, Duke of Buckingham, **Thomas Wentworth**, Earl of Strafford, and **William Laud**, Archbishop of Canterbury. After the death of Buckingham, Charles never gave his complete confidence to any one. Strafford and Laud were the chief promoters of the policy of **THOROUGH**—the former was meanly deserted in his hour of extreme need by Charles, the latter he could not help. The most distinguished members of the House of Commons were **John Pym** ("King Pym"), **Sir John Elliot**, and **John Hampden**, on the side of Parliament. On the side of the king were **Edward Hyde**, afterwards Earl of Clarendon, and **Lord Falkland**. In the Civil War, by far the greatest leader and most skilful organiser was **Oliver Cromwell**, who also distinguished himself as an able member of Parliament. Next to him comes **Thomas, Lord Fairfax**, the Earl of Essex, who was, however, much too slow in his movements, and, after Essex, **Lord Manchester** (formerly Lord Kimbolton).

(i) "If ever there were a man to whom the epithet 'magnanimous' could be rightfully applied—from the moment when he irrevocably chose his part to the hour when he laid his head upon the block—that man was Strafford." 

(ii) "Strafford was a great Englishman who, when the real meaning of the conflict became clear, chose his side with characteristic decision, fought for it without swerving through long years of bodily weakness, of misunderstanding, and of ingratitude, and died with all his wounds in front."

28 Social Facts—In spite of Charles's arbitrary government and illegal taxation, the prosperity of the country increased every year, because commerce had, in the previous reign, found its way into channels in which it flowed with ease and fertility. To add to the facilities of intercourse, which are the primary conditions of commerce, a central Post Office for England and Scotland was established in 1635. A weekly conveyance of letters to *all* parts of the kingdom was begun in 1649—that is, all parts of England, and the chief towns in Scotland considered themselves happy if they received their letters regularly once a week. **Van Diemen's Land**, now called **Tasmania**, was discovered by the Dutch navigator **Tasman** in the year 1642.

SHORT CHRONOLOGY AND SUMMARY OF CHARLES I's REIGN

- 1625 Accession of Charles
Charles marries Henrietta Maria of France
First Parliament
Grants tonnage and poundage for only one year The king declines to take it.
- 1626 Second Parliament
(a) Buckingham impeached.
(b) Money collected by forced loans
- 1627 War against France declared.
Expedition to Isle of Rhé fails
- 1628 Third Parliament
PETITION OF RIGHT
(a) Laud the king's adviser in Church affairs
(b) Buckingham assassinated at Portsmouth.
(c) Wentworth now sides with the king
- 1629 Parliament dissolved
No Parliament for eleven years
(a) Sir John Elliot sent to the Tower
(b) Wentworth, Laud, Nor, etc. the advisers of the king
- 1632 Death of Sir John Elliot in the Tower
- 1633 Wentworth Lord Deputy of Ireland.
Laud Archbishop of Canterbury
1634. First Writ for Ship-money (limited to sea coast counties and towns)
- 1635 Second Writ for Ship-money (extended to inland counties and towns)
- 1637 John Hampden refuses to pay Ship-money
- 1639 Pacification of Berwick.
- 1640 Fourth Parliament.
(a) The Scots invade England.
(b) Last sitting of the High Commission Court.
- Fifth Parliament.
(a) Wentworth (Lord Strafford) impeached
(b) Laud impeached.
- 1641 Triennial Act
- (a) Bill of Attainder against Strafford (April 21)
(b) Execution of Strafford (May 12)
(c) Root and Branch Bill
(d) Abolition of Star Chamber, High Commission Court, and Council of the North
- THE GRAND REMONSTRANCE
- 1642 The king tries to arrest Five Members in the House itself.
- FIRST CIVIL WAR.
(a) The Commons ask for the command of the Militia. King refuses
(b) King's Standard raised at Nottingham.
(c) Essex Captain General of the Parliamentary Army
Battle of Edgehill
(d) Income tax levied by Parliament.
- 1643 Chalgrove Field.
Death of Hampden
First Battle of Newbury
Falkland falls
Parliament signs The Solemn League and Covenant.
Death of John Pym.
1644. The Scots Army enters England
MARSTON MOOR.
Second Battle of Newbury
Self-denying Ordinance
- 1645 Execution of Laud.
New Model.
Battle of Naseby
Battle of Rowton Heath. Last in the open field.
- 1646 The king joins the Scots army at Newark
- 1647 King given up by the Scots
(a) The king is seized by Cornet Joyce
(b) The king flees from Hampton Court to the Isle of Wight.
- 1648 SECOND CIVIL WAR
Battle of Preston.
Pride's Purge
- 1649 Trial of Charles by the High Court of Justice (Jan. 20)
Execution of Charles (Jan. 30).

THE CHIEF BATTLES IN THE PARLIAMENTARY WAR.

(P means gained by Parliamentarians, R by Royalists D Doubtful)

1640	Battle of Newburn (on the Tyne)	MARSTON MOOR. P
1642	EDGEHILL D	Newbury (Second) P.
1643	Reading P	1645 KASEBY P
	Chalgrove Field R.	Philliphaugh (in Scotland) P
	Roundway Down R.	1648 Preston P
	Newbury (First) D	Wigan. P
1644.	Croredy Bridge P	Warrington P
		Uttoxeter P

IMPORTANT CONTEMPORARY EVENTS

1628	Defeat of the Huguenots at La Rochelle	or trading storehouse at Madras First piece of English territory in India
1632	Death of Gustavus Adolphus in the Battle of Lutzen	1641. The Incident in Scotland
1633	Wentworth in Ireland	IRISH REBELLION
1634.	Murder of Wallenstein	1643 Accession of Louis XIV of France. The "New England Corporation"
1638	Second Covenant in Scotland.	1644 Capture of Perth by Montrose
1639	Abolition of Episcopacy in Scotland	1645 Defeat of Montrose at Philliphaugh
	East India Company are permitted by Native Princes to establish a factory	1648 Invasion of England by the Scots Army

CHAPTER III

THE COMMONWEALTH

OLIVER CROMWELL

Born 1599 Protector (at the age of 54) 1653 Died 1658

Ruled 5 years

RICHARD CROMWELL

Born 1626 Protector (at the age of 32) 1658 Resigned 1659

Ruled 8 months

OLIVER CROMWELL, the second son of Robert Cromwell and Elizabeth Steward, was born at Huntingdon 25th April 1599. He was educated at the Hospital of St. John Huntingdon, and then at Sidney-Sussex College, Cambridge. He was 'well read in Greek and Roman story, and, when Protector, frequently talked with the foreign ambassadors in Latin. He married, in 1620, Elizabeth, daughter of Sir James Bonchier. They had two sons and four daughters. Bridget married first Ireton, and then Fleetwood. Cromwell was Captain of Horse at the battle of Edgehill, and among those officers who "never stirred from their troops, but they and their troops fought to the last minute." He was "Colonel in 1643. In 1628 he entered Parliament. In 1644 he was the head of a political party—the Independents, and known as "the Great Independent." At the second battle of Newbury he was General of Division. He was Commander in chief in 1650. The year 1658, four years after the execution of Charles I., saw him Protector. Worn out by the fatigues of war and government, he died in the midst of a terrible storm on the 3d of September, "his fortunate day, 1658, the anniversary of the battles of Dunbar and Worcester."

The day of the year on which an event happened is celebrated

The family name was originally *Williams*. Cromwell's great grandfather married Katharine the eldest sister of Thomas Cromwell, Earl of Essex (who succeeded Wolsey) and took his wife's name.—In his marriage settlement Cromwell is called Oliver Cromwell *alias Williams*.

CONTEMPORARY SOVEREIGNS

FRANCE LOUIS XIV

SPAIN PHILIP IV

✓1 The Commonwealth, 1649-1660—England was now left without a king, and the army was master in the country. But in

army is in its essence a weapon of defence against foreign powers, and it cannot be used to keep down other organic parts of its own nation. Besides, an army is a regulative and not a constructive power. The ruling power was vested in the remnant of the House of Commons, and this fragment of the Long Parliament appointed a Council of State, with Bradshaw as President, to carry on the work of the Government. Parliament voted that the House of Lords "is useless, dangerous, and ought to be abolished," declared it treason to give the title of *King* to any one, ordered the royal statues and the royal arms to be taken down, and had a new seal made, with the inscription, "The first year of freedom, by God's blessing, restored 1648." This Council consisted of forty-one members, three-fourths of whom were members of the House of

'The First
Year of
Freedom'
1648

Commons. John Milton was Foreign or Latin Secretary, Cromwell and Fairfax commanded the army, Sir Harry Vane was at the head of the Admiralty, but the whole power of the nation lay ultimately and really—though not formally—in Cromwell and the army. England was now to be a Commonwealth for more than eleven years. Cromwell had three difficulties directly in front of him—dissatisfaction in a part of the army, the Royalists in Ireland, and the opposition of Scotland. The mutiny in the army was chiefly the work of the Levellers, a sect who believed that all degrees and distinctions of rank among men should be levelled down and abolished, but this mutiny was swiftly and decisively crushed by the prompt and severe action of Cromwell.

(i) John Bright says "Force is no remedy"

(ii) Correspondence with Foreign Powers was at that time carried on in Latin, as it now is in French. John Milton was at that time probably the best Latin prose writer in the country.

(iii) The Levellers seem to have looked forward to a kind of millennium as the outcome of all their exertions. Their leader was John Lilburne.

(iv) Soon after Charles's death, a book called "Likón Basiliké" (= "Kingly Image"), said to have been written by Charles himself, but really by a Dr Sanders, gave an affecting account of his life in prison, of his religious meditations, and produced a strong feeling in the country. Fifty editions of the book sold in one year. Milton was commissioned by the Independents to reply to it, which he did in a book entitled 'Iconoclastes' (= "The Image Breaker").

2 **Ireland**—The fighting to be done in Ireland was a much more difficult piece of work. The Royalist Lord-Lieutenant was James;

Butler, the Marquis of Ormond, and round his banner had gathered Roman Catholic, Episcopalian, and Presbyterian, all ready to shed their blood for King Charles II. This Royalist army held nearly all the fortresses and strongholds in the island, with the exception of Derry, Belfast, and Dublin. Cromwell, after receiving his commission as Lord-Lieutenant from the House of Commons, set out for Ireland

Cromwell in Ireland { with a small but well-selected army of 10,000 men, and "with the determination to make a final end of the 1649 disturbance in that island." In nine short months Cromwell had utterly broken the power of the Royalist party. His method was short, simple, and severe. He would summon a town or castle to surrender, and if it declined to comply with his summons, he carried it by storm, and put to death every man who was found with arms in his hands. Sometimes, in the bloody strife, women, children, and priests were also cut down in the streets. Drogheda¹ and Wexford² ran with blood, and such terror was struck into the Royalists by this procedure, that little resistance was made by the towns he afterwards visited. Large numbers of prisoners were made and shipped off to the West Indies, the estates of the Royalists were confiscated, and their proprietors "transplanted" to Connaught, where they starved, and many of the Parliamentary soldiers were settled in military colonies on districts in Ulster, Munster, and Leinster.

(i) Ormond was beaten by General Michael Jones, at the Battle of Rathmines (a suburb of Dublin), before Cromwell landed.

(ii) Of Drogheda Cromwell writes "I believe we put to the sword the whole number of the defendants. I do not think thirty of the whole number escaped with their lives. The enemy was about 3000 strong in the town. A common malediction in Ireland still is, 'The curse of Cromwell on ye!'" *curse, civil - spee*

(iii) "The fact that the garrisons were Catholics, fighting on Irish soil, placed them, to the Puritan Englishman, out of the pale. No admiration for Cromwell, for his genius, courage, and earnestness—no sympathy with the cause that he upheld in England—can blind us to the truth, that the lurid light of this great crime³ burns still after centuries across the history of England and Ireland."—HARRISON

(iv) "In Scotland, religion, institutions, law, land, habits, and national sentiments were scrupulously respected. In Ireland, the religion, institutions, law, land, habits, and national sentiment of the Irish were trampled under the heel of the conqueror."—HARRISON

¹ On the river Boyne thirty miles north of Dublin.

² On the river Slaney about sixty miles south west of Dublin.

³ The slaughter is said to have been carried on for days—and sometimes in cold blood.

3 Scotland.—Tho Scotch replyed to the terrible news of the execution of the father by at once proclaiming his son Charles II The young king was invited to Scotland, and soon after arrived He agreed to sign the Covenant "I could never look my mother in the face again," he said, "after signing such a paper," and yet he signed it He would have signed anything to get a crown An enthusiastic welcome met him at Edinburgh But this young self-indulgent and pleasure-loving prince did not much like it, and he was not greatly cheered by his stay among the Scotch He was both lectured to and lectured at by the fiery and zealous Scottish preachers, he was obliged to be present every day at long sermons, where the "sins of his father and mother" formed the chief theme of discourse, and he never could get what he liked best in all the world—his own way Cromwell marched into Scotland, and, keeping near the east coast—in order to receive supplies from his fleet, was hemmed in by the Scotch general, David Leslie, near Dunbar, in Haddingtonshire Leslie had out-generalled Cromwell, and held him firmly, as in a trap "He occupied with a strong guard the pass which was the key of the road to England" Besides, bad weather had driven off Cromwell's ships, and there seemed no alternative for the English but to surrender or to starve Meanwhile, crowds of Scottish preachers had come from Edinburgh into the camp of Leslie, they went about proclaiming "The Lord hath delivered them into our hands," and they raised so violent and eager a spirit among the common soldiers, that the cool old General Leslie felt himself compelled, against his better judgment, to leave his strong position upon the hills Cromwell saw the blunder, exclaimed, "Let God arise, and let his enemies be scattered," fell upon the Scotch in the dawn, early dawn, and utterly routed the whole army So complete was the disaster, that the battle went by the name of the Dunbar Drove This was on Cromwell's fortunate day of the 3d of September, in the year 1650 On the 1st of January, next year, Charles was crowned at Seone by the Marquis of Argyll, but, preferring the chances of war to the weariness of a residence in Edinburgh, he marched into England at the head of a Scotch army, and made his way as far as Worcester

Battle of
Dunbar
1650

(1) Charles II. was obliged to sign the two Covenants several times, he had to dismiss his old friends, he was obliged to go through very long prayers, fastings, and

sermons (sometimes six a day), and he bitterly complained to Lauderdale that "Presbytery was not a religion for a gentleman."—"Finally, a declaration was laid before him, in which he was made to acknowledge not only the sinfulness of his own dealings with the Irish, but his father's blood guiltiness and his mother's idolatry. Thus he signed, "the Scots threatening to cast him off. All the while, he was making large promises to the Catholics in England

(ii) "The English army entered Scotland consumed with zeal to fight it out to the last man in defence of the Commonwealth, and to live and die with their renowned general

(iii) "Cromwell had scarcely 11,000 left under arms and these, as one of them wrote, 'a poor, scattered, hungry, discouraged army'. The Scots, just double his number, were placed on a strong range of hills between him and his own country and had occupied the only road by the sea along which he could retreat across the border. He saw the danger fully, but 'hope shone in him like a pillar of fire, when it had gone out in all the others'. —HARRISON

The enemy hath blocked up our way" writes Cromwell at the pass of Copperspath (Cock burnspath) through which we cannot get without almost a miracle "

(iv) On the side of the Scots, 8000 lay dead on the field more were killed in the rout, 10,000 prisoners, 15,000 stand of arms, and all the artillery, were taken. On the side of Cromwell, only two officers and twenty men were killed.

4 The Battle of Worcester—Cromwell made all haste after Charles, and overtook him on the 28th of August 1651. Here he "beat the enemy from hedge to hedge till he beat him into Worcester," and here he gained what he was accustomed to call his "crowning victory" and his "crowning mercy," and this again happened on the day that seemed to be full of fortune to him—the 3d of September. Battle of Worcester 1651 This was the day of the battle of Dunbar and the battle of Worcester, and this too was the day on which he was to die. Charles escaped, and, after cutting off his long hair and donning peasant's clothes, wandered among the Midland Counties for more than a month. A reward of a thousand pounds was offered for his apprehension, but, though he confided his safety to the care of more than forty persons, no one was ever found to fail in fidelity, in loyalty, or in caution. His chief hiding-place was Boseobel Wood in Shropshire, and here he one day—the 29th of May 1651—lay on the top of a pollard oak (the "Royal Oak") with a supply of bread and cheese and beer, while beneath he caught glimpses of the soldiers of Cromwell looking about for signs of his presence.

"And far below the Roundhead rode
And hummed a surly hymn "

Hence the holiday and the oak-leaf, dear to the memory and the

feelings of every English schoolboy. At length he and his friend Lord Wilmot reached Brightelmstone (now Brighton) in Sussex, where a coal-essel was found, which landed him safely at Fecamp in Normandy—When Cromwell returned to London, four commissioners from the Parliament were sent out to meet and receive him like a king, they met him at Aylesbury and conducted him in state to London. Scotland was left in charge of General Monck, and ‘kept in great order’ by him, while Ireland was ruled by General Ireton.

(a) Charles II. fought very bravely in the battle of Worcester. He charged the enemy several times, and his horse killed under him.

(b) “My Lord General (Cromwell) did exceedingly hazard himself, riding up and down in the midst of the fire. It was as with a contest for four or five hours as ever I have seen. The loss of the victors was under 200 men. Cromwell directed the troops to ‘fall on in all places at once.’

(c) “Not only did Cromwell receive command in any battle that did not result in a ruin to his army, but no single operation of war that he ever undertook had failed. With so as 12,000 men he practically reconquered Ireland in nine months, with a little larger force he subdued Scotland in about a year. At Periton, with a loss of 500 men he annihilated a brave army of 21,000 men. At Dunbar, with a smaller loss, he annihilated another brave army of 22,000, at Worcester, with a loss of under 100, he completely ruined an army of 14,000 men.”—HARRIS.

(d) For his victory at Worcester, Cromwell received the thanks of the House of Commons, a pension of £1,000 a year, and Hampton Court Palace as a residence for life.

✓ 5 **War with Holland.**—In 1652 a war broke out with Holland, and the great sailor Robert Blake on the English side, and Van Tromp and De Ruyter¹ on the Dutch side, made themselves an immortal name in the annals of naval warfare. At first Van Tromp defeated Blake, and not an English sailor dared to show himself. The quarrel had originally arisen out of competition in commerce and the desire for British supremacy on the sea, and our admirals had been instructed to demand the honour of the flag. A series of bloody fights took place between the two nations; but at length, in July 1653, Blake obtained a decisive victory, and the States-General of Holland were forced to sue for peace.—One of the captains in the English fleet was General Monck, for the naval and military services were in those days not necessarily distinct, as they are at the present time.

¹ Pronounced *De Ruyter*.

(i) The Navigation Act offended the Dutch. This act prohibited the importation of any goods in other than English vessels or in the vessels of the country from which the goods came. Hitherto the Dutch had been—what the British now are—the “Carriers for the world.” Marvell writes of them

“In matters of commerce the fault of the Dutch
Is giving too little and asking too much.”

(ii) “The honour of the flag meant that the Dutch, when sailing in the Channel, were to salute our fleet first

“The salute of the English flag, the right of search, the limits of the fisheries, became the subjects of ardent contention between England and the States General.”

(iii) Admiral Robert Blake defeated Van Tromp in the Downs off Cape La Hague, and off the North Foreland, and, in June 1653, finally defeated him, when Van Tromp was killed in the battle. In 1652 Blake was defeated by Van Tromp in the Dover Roads.

6 The Expulsion of the Long Parliament—The Rump of the Long Parliament was not ruling England with ability or success, and the army was very desirous to see a new and better Parliament in its place. The House numbered hardly a hundred members, and the average attendance was little more than fifty. Cromwell wanted a settlement of the nation. A conference was proposed between the army and the Parliament, but while this was going on, the House of Commons was slyly passing a Bill for a new Parliament, in which all the present members were to sit without re-election, and also to have a vote in the election of new members. Their haste was so great that the Bill was not even engrossed on parchment, but was to be passed on paper. The dishonesty of this proceeding roused the slow but burning wrath of Cromwell. Taking with him a few troopers, he walked down to the House on the 20th of April 1653, and took his usual seat, “clad in plain grey clothes and grey worsted stockings,” as a private member. The question was put to the House “that this Bill do now pass,” Cromwell whispered to General Harrison, “Now is the time, I must do it!” rose and began to speak. Stepping forward on the floor of the House, he strode up and down, hurling reproaches and upbraidings at the members. “Come, come! I will put an end to your prating! Get you gone,” he said, “and give place to honest men.” He stamped his foot, and his troopers came pouring in. “Take away that trubble!” he said, pointing to the mace. General Harrison politely helped the Speaker, Lenthall, from the chair, the House emptied, Cromwell locked the door and put the key in his pocket, and so little feeling did this arouse in the country, that “not even a dog barked”

4- Cromwell
expels the
Long Parlia-
ment
1653

as they left the place, and the French ambassador said, "the House is now to be let unfurnished." Cromwell was now absolute master of England

(i) A representative of the Parliament had *promised* the Conference that the progress of the Bill should be stopped until an agreement had been reached

(ii) "Such is one of the most famous scenes in our history, that which of all other things has most heavily weighed on the fame of Cromwell. It is one of the rare occasions in all history where a great Act of State has been carried out with personal fury and outrage. There was no other public occasion on which Cromwell displayed ungovernable passion. But he was a man of volcanic temper, at all times liable to outbursts of coarseness." —HARRISON

7 The Little Parliament—Cromwell seems now to have cherished a strong desire to restore the old constitution, and perhaps was not unwilling to be made king. His first step was to call together an assembly of one hundred and forty nominees—men of well-approved life and known religious beliefs,—“men faithful, fearing God, and hating covetousness,”—and this assembly was known as the Little Parliament. One of the most frequent speakers in this Parliament was a leather-merchant in London, who had been christened by his Puritanic parents, *Praise-God Barbon*, and hence it received the nickname of “Barebone’s Parliament.” It was a failure, ^{The Little} and in a few months the members voluntarily resigned their ^{Parliament} power into the hands of the person who had called them ¹⁶⁵³ together—Oliver Cromwell. On the 16th of December 1653, his Council of officers conferred publicly upon him the title of *Lord Protector of the Commonwealth of England, Scotland, and Ireland*

(i) *Praise God Barbon* was the Junior M P for the City of London

During the Puritanic period it was very common for parents to give their children as names: short texts from Scripture. Macaulay mentions a serjeant who was called Blind their nobles in chains and their kings in fetters of iron. Sykes.

(ii) “Cromwell plainly designed this Assembly of Puritan Notables to be a constituent, not a permanent, body, to call a regular Parliament, and to exercise provisional authority. There never was before, he said, a supreme authority so called 140 persons not one but had in him faith in Jesus Christ.” —HARRISON

Constituent=charged to draw up a Constitution.

8 The Protectorate, 1653-1658—The document in which Cromwell assumed the Protectorate was called the *Instrument of Government, 1653*. By this document Cromwell was ^{The Instru} to have associated with himself a Council of State, twenty- ^{ment of} one in number, to summon a Parliament of 460 mem- ^{Government} bers, all Parliaments were to be biennial, and the new Parliamen- ¹⁶⁵³ *happening every two*

was to meet on the famous 3d of September. But this—Cromwell's First House of Commons, which met in 1654—quarrelled with him on the subject of the form of government, and was dissolved before it had passed a single Act. His Second Parliament, which met in 1656, in a document called "The Humble Petition and Advice," proposed in 1657 that he should take the title of *King*, but Cromwell declined the honour and the danger. The Protector was, however, enthroned with almost regal pomp in Westminster Hall on June 26, 1657, he was presented with a sword, a sceptre, and a Bible, and he created a number of Peers, who were to form a House of Lords. In 1658 his Third Parliament met, but declined to acknowledge the new House of Lords, would hardly look at them, persisted in calling them the "Other House", and Cromwell, in deep anger, dissolved this Parliament also. This was his last attempt at Parliamentary government.

(i) The First Protectorate Parliament consisted of 460 members: 400 for England, 30 for Scotland, and 30 for Ireland. Many rotten boroughs were disfranchised and their members were given to large towns. The representation of counties was proportioned to the population.

(a) The numbers in the House of Commons to-day are 624 for England, 103 for Ireland, and 72 for Scotland.

(b) There was thus in 1654, a real Parliamentary Union between England and Scotland (before the Union of 1707) and between England and Ireland (before the Union of 1801).

(ii) In Cromwell's First Parliament a hundred members were not allowed to take their seats, because they declined to promise that they would not attempt to alter "the government as settled in a single person and a Parliament." They regarded themselves as free to discuss anything whatever. (Milton, who had been Foreign Secretary under the Long Parliament, continued to act under the new arrangements.)

(iii) "With the dissolution of the Parliament of 1654 ended all show of legal rule."
—GREEN

(iv) From the Second Parliament a hundred members were also excluded.

(v) "The Humble Petition and Advice" contained four chief articles: (i) The Executive to consist of a Protector and Council of State—the Council to be named by Parliament. (ii) Parliament to consist of two Houses. (iii) Parliament to be Triennial. The Protector to be Commander in chief by sea and land. (iv) Complete Toleration for all forms of religion except Roman Catholicism and Socinianism.

(vi) Cromwell refused the title of King, but accepted the Constitution. The Army would not permit it. "Here, and for the last time, the Army appears as the conscience of the nation. Steadily and with dignity he put the Crown aside. He valued the title, he said 'but as a feather in his hat.'"
—HARRISON

In his last speech to his last Parliament Cromwell said: "I would have been glad to have lived under my woodsides to have kept a flock of sheep rather than undertake such a government as this."

(vi) One reason for offering Cromwell the title of *King* was that "the kings prerogative is under the Courts of Justice, and is bounded as well as any acre of land, or anything a man hath"

✓ 9 Foreign Affairs—Cromwell was respected at home and dreaded abroad. He reverted to the policy of Queen Elizabeth. Under his guidance, England became one of the greatest and most formidable powers of Europe, and an alliance with him was eagerly sought by Holland, by France, and by Spain. Louis XIV—the most powerful monarch on the Continent—was only prevented by illness from coming over to pay his respects to him in person. Especially at sea he was strong. Blake swept the Barbary pirates off the face of the Mediterranean, and made commerce safe, bombarded Algiers, and set the English prisoners free, broke the maritime power of Spain, and took from her the island of Jamaica, and destroyed the Spanish treasure-ships in the harbour of Santa Cruz, in spite of a tremendous and well-directed fire from a shore lined with batteries. Thus was the avowed purpose of Cromwell to "make the name of Englishman terrible abroad" fully carried out. Cromwell further made himself the protector of the Reformed Religion throughout Europe, and arrested the hand of the Duke of Savoy in his persecution of the Waldenses. Nay more, in the very last year of his rule he wrested Dunkirk from the hands of the Spaniards, and manned it with an English garrison. It was some compensation for the loss of Calais, which had been taken from us a hundred years before. Clarendon, the adviser of Charles II, an enemy to Cromwell and his politics, but a just man, felt himself constrained to write "His greatness at home was but a shadow of the glory he had abroad." *forced*

Cromwell
protects the
Waldenses
1656

✓ (i) Cromwell's policy was to be strong at sea, and to attack his enemies in their colonies. He took Jamaica from Spain. He ensured freedom of trade and freedom of religion for English merchants in Spanish ports, and curbed the insolence of the Inquisition. He made an alliance with France, defeated the Spaniards in the Battle of the Dunes, and seized Dunkirk. He compelled the Duke of Savoy to stop persecuting the Waldenses (Vaudois). Milton has a fine sonnet on this

"Avenge, O Lord! thy slaughtered saints, whose bones
Lie scattered on the Alpine mountains cold."

✓ (ii) Under Cromwell, the supremacy of the sea passed from the Dutch to the English, and the "Maritime Empire" of Great Britain was founded. "England

¹ The Vaudois in the north of Piedmont. (The word is the French form of Waldenses.)

became a European power of the first rank, as she never had been since the Plenia genets, not even in the proudest hours of Wolsey or Elizabeth. From the Baltic to the Mediterranean, from Algiers to Teneriffe, from Newfoundland to Jamaica, were heard the English cannon."—HARRISON

10 Death of Oliver Cromwell.—The last days of the dreaded Protector were dark and gloomy. His health was getting sapped by the weary and incessant anxieties of political work, plots from abroad and at home surrounded him in his room and on the street. Charles had long offered large rewards for the head of "the base mechanic fellow who had usurped his throne," and now domestic sorrows came to add to his burden, and to weigh down the oppressed mind and the broken nerves of the overworked ruler. He had to carry pistols, and to wear a shirt of mail under his clothes, and it is even said that he slept in a different room every night. A Colonel Titus wrote a pamphlet called "Killing no Murder," and this book had a large circulation. He had watched for fourteen days by the bedside of a sick daughter, "unable to attend to any public business whatever," and her death, on the 6th of August 1658, nearly broke his heart. On the 30th a mighty storm of wind—tearing roofs from houses, and levelling the largest trees in every forest—swept through the land, and a few days later, on the evening of his "fortunate day"—the 3d of September—the storm broke out afresh, and in this terrible convulsion of nature the mighty spirit of Oliver Cromwell passed from the scenes of his earthly strife and labour. "My work is done," he said, and quietly breathed his last.

Death of
Oliver
Cromwell
1658

(i) A proclamation in the name of Charles II. had been secretly circulated in 1654 offering a knighthood and £500 a year to the person who should assassinate Cromwell.

(ii) On the 20th of August George Fox, the Quaker, met Cromwell riding at the head of his guards in Hampton Court Park, and "thought he looked like a dead man already."

(iii) "He was buried in Westminster Abbey, in Henry VII's chapel, at the east end of the middle aisle amongst kings and with a more than regal solemnity."

(iv) "Oliver loved music, encouraged musicians, and held weekly concerts. He loved society, was frank, humorous, and genial with his intimates, affable with dependants and strangers, stately and impressive on occasions of state. He was generous of his personal fortune, and made no use of his power to extend it. He did nothing to promote the private interest of his own family."—HARRISON

(v) Macaulay calls him "the greatest prince that has ever ruled England."

(vi) "No human countenance recorded is more familiar to us than that broad, solid face with the thick and prominent red nose, the heavy gnarled brow, with its historic wart, eyes firm, penetrating, sad, square jaw and close set mouth, scanty tufts of hair on lip and chin, long, loose brown locks flowing down in waves on to the shoulder. His whole air breathing energy, firmness, passion, pity, and sorrow—

'His face

Deep scars of thunder had intrenched, and care
Sat on his faded cheek, but under brows
Of dauntless courage and considerate pride —HARRISON

11 Richard Cromwell, 1658-59 —Cromwell had named his son as his successor, and Richard took his place at the head of the Council-Table as quietly as if he had been a hereditary ruler. But Richard was not born for power, and he cared very little for it. He was a "peasant in his nature, yet gentle and virtuous," and he soon found the army too powerful for his management. This "Fourth Estate," the army, recalled the "Rump" of the Long Parliament—now reduced to forty-two members, and Richard, who declared, "I will not have a drop of blood spilt for the preservation of my greatness, which is a burden to me," retired into private life, became a quiet country gentleman, and died at the age of eighty-five. He had held the Protectorship for only eight months, and the Royalists gave him the nickname of "Tumble-down Dick." His brother Henry, too, who had shown great ability, both as a soldier and a statesman, in the government of Ireland, followed him into retirement. A government based on the representation of a minority both in politics and in religion had—broken utterly down

Richard
Cromwell
Protector
1658-59.

(i) Richard Cromwell was a member of his father's "House of Lords. He was generally regarded as a pleasant country gentleman, "well skilled in hawking, hunting, and horse racing." *to hunt birds with hawks; trained for*

(ii) The royalist satirists spoke of him as "Queen Dick", and Dryden in his *Absalom and Achitophel* gives him the name of "the foolish Ishbosheth". "He was gentle and virtuous, but became not greatness," says Mrs Hutchinson.

12 General Monck.—The Rump, though restored by the army, quarrelled with it again, and in October 1659 it was again expelled—this time by General Lambert, the leader of the military party, who hoped himself to play the part of Oliver Cromwell. Monck, who commanded the troops in Scotland, at once turned his face to the south, and resolved that he would uphold the supremacy of the civil

over the military power, that he would support Parliament and the old constitution. He told his soldiers that it was from Parliament they received their pay and their commissions, and that it was their duty to defend it. In spite of many obstacles, he continued his march, and entered London on the 3d of February 1660. For some time he kept his own counsel, and no one could say what purpose the cold and silent man might have in his mind, but he at last publicly declared for a Free Parliament, and London and the whole country broke forth into joy and feasting. "The bells in all the churches went a-ringing, and at Strand Bridge there were at one time thirty-one bonfires." The Presbyterian members of the House, who had been turned out by Colonel Pride, returned to their seats in the Long Parliament, and that celebrated body, which, although twice expelled and twice restored, had existed for twenty years, at once proceeded to issue writs for a new Parliament, and dissolved itself on the 16th of March 1660.

Monck
enters
London
1660

13 The Restoration—The New Parliament—or, as it was called by the Royalists, the Constituent Convention—met on the 25th of April, and the Peers also returned to their House. Monck now opened communications with Charles, who was living at Breda, in Holland. From that town Charles issued a proclamation—known as the Declaration of Breda, in which he promised pardon for past offences to all, excepting only such persons as might hereafter be excluded by Parliament, liberty of conscience, and settlement by Parliament of questions relating to property in land. An invitation from the convention was at once sent over to Holland, and Charles was proclaimed King at the door of Westminster Hall on the 8th of May.

The Constituent Convention (which was so termed because it was called together without the Royal Writ) contained a large number of members who were friendly to the royal family (A body of the same character met after the Revolution of 1688)

14 The Return of Charles II—He left Holland with a hundred ships, and on the 29th he entered London, along streets strewed with flowers, past houses hung with flags, tapestries, and banniers, past fountains spouting with wine, among aldermen wearing chains of gold, and noblemen in embroidered velvets, with a great shouting, hurrahing, and amid the roll of drums and the blare of trumpets.

never married

He smilingly remarked that it must surely have been his own fault that he had not come back sooner, for he saw no one who did not protest that he had always longed for his return. One Dobson, a miller at Charlton, in Kent, burnt his windmill as a bonfire for joy. At Blackheath, the new king passed Cromwell's old army,—an army of thirty thousand men,—who allowed him to go by without a murmur, or a shout, or the faintest mark of recognition. The day of the Puritans was past, and this great army quietly returned to their work upon their farms, in their workshops, and in the fields. Another race of men—another religion, or no-religion—was coming in, and godlessness became the fashion now—godlessness without shame and without restraint

Charles II.
returns
May 29,
1660

(i) Andrew Marvell, the friend and co secretary of Milton, has described Charles the Second with great clearness —

"Of a tall stature, and of sable hue, *black, dark*
Much like the son of Kish, that lofty Jew,
Twelve years complete he suffered in exile,
And kept his father's asses all the while."

(ii) Monk said he would have remained loyal to Richard Cromwell "had not Richard forsaken himself." Macaulay describes Monk as a man "cold blooded, taciturn, zealous for no party and for no religion." *not fond of talk.*

(iii) "As soon as Monk's declaration was known, the whole nation went wild with delight. Wherever he appeared, thousands thronged round him shouting and blessing his name. The bells of all England rang joyously, the gutters ran with ale, and, night after night, the sky for five miles round London was reddened by innumerable bonfires. Those Presbyterian members of the House of Commons who had many years before been expelled by the army, returned to their seats, and were hailed with acclamations by great multitudes, which filled Westminster Hall and Palace Yard. The Independent leaders no longer dared to show their faces in the streets." — MACAULAY

15 The Work of Parliament—Although none of Cromwell's Parliaments were constitutional bodies, they did a great deal of work, and were always eager to do more—chiefly in the way of mending, altering, re-forming or re-casting old institutions. The Little Parliament of 1653 was especially eager in its desires for reform. It proposed to abolish the Court of Chancery, to do away with tithes, to hand over the patronage of church-livings to the congregations themselves, and, so determined were they to get rid of every abuse in the law, they appointed a Committee of Legal Reform which did not contain a single lawyer—The First Protectorate Parliament,

which met September 3, 1654, did nothing at all—The Second Protectorate Parliament, which met in 1656, passed "The Humble Petition and Advice," by which it proposed to re-model the Constitution, to create a new line of kings, and—by means of a Council, the members of which should be nominated or removed by Parliament itself—to anticipate, in a certain fashion, the mode of government by Cabinet, which exists at the present time—The Third Protectorate Parliament, which was the last, and which met in the beginning of 1658, spent its time in debates over the relations in which the Commons stood or ought to stand to the Lords, and was dissolved by Cromwell in a fortnight

(i) The acts of the Puritan Convention (or Barebone's Parliament) alarmed the conservative classes—the clergy, the lawyers, and the landowners. Cromwell himself, who was thoroughly conservative in temper and habits, said of the members "Nothing was in the hearts of these men but *overturn, overturn*."

(ii) It should be noted that, though the First Protectorate Parliament of September 3, 1654, did nothing, it was the FIRST IMPERIAL PARLIAMENT that ever sat, as it contained members both from Ireland and from Scotland.

16 Great Men—In the army the men who distinguished themselves most were Lord Fairfax, Ireton, Lambert, and Monck. In the navy, Blake and Penn are the two most prominent names, while Sir Harry Vane was at the head of the Admiralty. Henry Cromwell showed, by his rule in Ireland, that he had some of the genius of his father. The name of John Milton is better known in literature than in political affairs, but, as Foreign Secretary, he seconded with the highest ability and the most powerful language the views and the measures of Cromwell. Oliver Cromwell stands out himself as the greatest man of this period, head and shoulders above every one, whether as a general or as a statesman, whether as a ruler at home or as a negotiator with foreign powers.

17 Social Facts—The Navigation Act of 1651 gave a very great impetus to commerce, to ship-building, and to seamanship. The ships importing produce into England had not only to be owned, but also manned, by Englishmen—The East India Company was fortunate enough to induce the Great Mogul, whose capital was Delhi, to grant them free-trade in Bengal, that is, its agents were permitted to buy and sell in all parts of that vast and wealthy province without being subject to taxation of any kind.

(i) On wood they consisted of the surname for thorough law reform, and his very method of writing the and so forth, was the language employed in law books, in wills, deeds, and other legal documents.

(j) The new pamphlets added to law were invented in 1653.

SHORT CHRONOLOGY AND SUMMARY OF THE PROTECTOPATH

1651 (a) Abolition of the House of Lords	1654 First Protectorate Parliament
(b) Abolition of the Monarchy	1656 Second Protectorate Parliament
(c) Cromwell in Ireland	The throne offered to Cromwell
1652 (a) Charles II is crowned by the Scots (Jan. 1)	1658 Third Protectorate Parliament
Edinburgh (Sept. 3)	Death of Cromwell (Sept. 3)
1653 Battle of Worcester (Sept. 3)	Richard Cromwell declared Protector
1654 (a) "Settlement" of Ireland by Cromwell	1659 (a) Restoration of "The Pump" of the Lower Parliament (May)
(b) First Dutch War	(b) March of Monk southwards (Oct.)
Edinburgh is the theatre of the first battle	
1655 (a) Closing of the House of Commons by Cromwell (April)	1660 (a) Monk declares for a "Free Parliament" (Jan.)
(b) "Parliamentary" Parliament (July)	(b) The Roundheads reject a Convention (March)
(c) Instrument of Government (Dec.)	(c) The Convention recalls Charles II (April)
(d) Battle with the Dutch off Portland, North Foreland, and Texel	(d) Charles II enters London (May 25)

CHAPTER IV

CHARLES THE SECOND

Born 1630 Succeeded (at the age of 30) 1660 Died 1685
Reigned 25 years

CHARLES II, the second son of Charles I and Henrietta Maria of France, was born at St. James's Palace, London, on the 29th of May 1630. In 1645 he was appointed General of the Association of the four western counties, but he parted finally from his father in the beginning of this year. To avert the execution of his father in 1649 he induced the States General of Holland to intercede, and he is said to have sent to the Parliament a blank sheet ("carte blanche") with his signature, in which they were to insert whatever terms they pleased "to save his father's head." Charles II was proclaimed King of Scotland in Edinburgh, on the 5th of February 1649, and was crowned at Scone, January 1, 1651. After the battle of Worcester he fled to France, where he lived till 1654, and he lived in Cologne, Brussels, and different parts of Holland till his recall in 1660. He was crowned on 23d April 1661. He married Catherine of Braganza in 1662. They had no children. He died at St. James's Palace on the 6th of February 1685.

CONTEMPORARY SOVEREIGNS

FRANCE
LOUIS XIV, 1643-1715

AUSTRIA
LEOPOLD I

SPAIN
PHILIP IV to 1665
CHARLES II

1. Charles II, 1660-1685 — When Charles II came to the throne, he was so great a favourite that he could do whatever he pleased. There was nothing the nation would not have granted him. No conditions were imposed upon him, he came to the throne as to his own private estate, the year of his return was styled not the first, but the *twelfth*, of his reign, and the Restoration seemed to be the beginning of a new epoch of happiness, prosperity, and peace. The army was disbanded. Charles was a man of great natural talents, an easy-going and unruffled temper, and the most charming and attractive manners, but he had no principles, and very

houses were open again, the Maypole rose once more on the village green, and again from this day forth, it was Merry England under the "Merry Monarch," as it seemed to the Royalists

(i) Charles had issued a proclamation commanding those who had sat in judgment on his father to surrender within fourteen days "on pain of being excepted from any pardon or indemnity as to their lives or estates." This clearly meant that those who did show themselves up would be mercifully dealt with. But Charles did not keep his word.

(ii) Even the body of Blake was exhumed, and flung out of Westminster Abbey.

(iii) Several of the accused pleaded that their actions were protected by the Statute of Henry VIII, which permits a person to obey a *de facto* king.

(iv) Evelyn writes "Scott, Serape, Cook and Jones suffered for reward of their iniquities at Charing Cross, in sight of the place where they put to death their natural prince, and in the presence of the king his son, whom they also sought to kill. I saw not their execution, but met their quarters mangled and cut, and recking as they were brought from the gallows in baskets on the hurdle." If Mr Evelyn objected to witness these executions, it was still more incumbent on Charles himself to stay away.

(v) The Convention Parliament abolished all feudal dues (such as aids, knight's service, etc.), and also the right of the king to purveyance.

Throughout the land men were intoxicated by the return to the ancient order of things. The Maypoles had been again set up, the Christmas ale was again flowing in the squire's hall, the peasantry were again wrestling and cudgel playing on the village-green, the stocks were no longer a terror to the drunkard, the play houses were open in London and itinerant actors again gathered their gaping audiences in booth or barn. —KNIGHT

3 The New Parliament—Charles had now got all out of the Convention Parliament that he could possibly hope for, and he accordingly dissolved it, and called together a new Parliament in 1661. This Parliament consisted chiefly of old cavaliers and their sons, who were eager to make England once more the old England of the early part of the century—hot Royalists, and still more enthusiastic Churchmen. They passed the Corporation Act, which required

The Corporation Act 1661
all magistrates and officials in a town or city to swear to the doctrine of passive obedience, to renounce the Covenant, and to have received the sacrament from the hands of an Anglican priest within one year before their election —

They also sent up to the king an address—a joint address from both Houses—asking for the lives of General Lambert and Sir Harry Vane. Vane made a noble and spirited defence, but the king wrote to Clarendon, on the day after his trial, "If he has given no new occasion to be hanged, certainly he is too dangerous a man to let live, if we

can honestly put him out of the way ' This was the humanity of the man whom his subjects called the "Merry Monarch"—They also passed in 1662 the Act of Uniformity, which compelled ^{The Act of Uniformity} every clergyman, every Fellow of a College, and every schoolmaster to give his 'unfeigned assent and consent' 1662 to every statement contained in the Book of Common Prayer, and to take an oath that resistance to the Crown was sinful and unlawful Every minister who should decline to do this before the Feast of St Bartholomew, 1662, should be *ipso facto* deprived of his benefice. When the dark day arrived, about two thousand ministers—some of them the best, the most learned, and the most eloquent in the Church—resigned their livings and their charges, and went out to begin the world again. The Conventicle Act of 1664, and the Five-Mile Act of 1665, were positive and active forms of persecution, which showed the extreme heat of feeling that existed in this "Cavalier Parliament"

(i) By forcing these non-conforming clergymen to leave before St Bartholomew's Day, they were deprived of a whole year's income—When, in 1643, a number of the Episcopal clergy refused to swear to the Covenant, they were allowed to take with them one fifth of the income of their livings

(ii) The non-conformity of these able men hardened into dissent, and their differences inside the Church became hostility without it.

(iii) The Conventicle Act forbade the meeting of more than five persons (other than members of the Church of England) for religious purposes. This Act practically forbade family worship. A third offence was punished with transportation. Richard Baxter wrote "Many durst not pray in their families, if above four persons come in to dine with them." "The Quakers were so resolute, and gloried in their constancy and sufferings, that they assembled openly and were dragged away daily to the common jail, and yet desisted not, but the rest came the next day nevertheless, so that the jail in Newgate was filled with them. Abundance of them died in prison, and yet they continued their assemblies still."

(iv) The Five Mile Act prohibited clergymen who had not subscribed the Act of Uniformity, or taken the oath of non-resistance to the King, from settling (or "coming, unless upon the road") within five miles of any corporate town, or from teaching in schools. The penalty was £40 and six months imprisonment.

(v) The four Acts—the Corporation Act, the Act of Uniformity, the Conventicle Act, and the Five Mile Act—are often spoken of as the Clarendon Code. The purpose of all of these was to place the Church of England in its old position—before Cromwell's time. Presbyterianism had been established by Parliament in 1647 but it had never been accepted by the body of the nation, only in Middlesex and in Lancashire

4 **The Marriage of Charles**—The king, advised by Louis XIV, announced to his Parliament that he proposed to marry Catherine of Braganza, the Infanta of Portugal. She brought him £350,000 as a dowry, the fortress of Tangier in Africa, and the beautiful island of Bombay on the coast of India. Charles further put money in his purse by the sale of Dunkirk (the Gibraltar of that time), for the sum of £400,000, to Louis XIV, a transaction which roused the warmest feelings of indignation and shame, the greater and deeper that it was generally believed that Charles wanted the money to spend, not on benefits for the nation, but upon the pleasures of a debauched, dissolute, and shameless court. This court became the disgrace of the country and the ridicule of foreigners, and the Dutch, who used to caricature King Charles, published a print, in which he was exhibited with "his pockets turned the wrong side outward, hanging out empty." Charles spent nearly £140,000 on one of his favourites in a single year.

(i) "Louis made a cunning bargain. He gave four millions of livres in bills and then employed his own ready money to discount his own bills, at a saving of half a million."—KNIGHT

(ii) Clarendon, Charles's chief adviser, was generally believed to have been bribed by Louis in relation to the sale, and a house he was then building was nicknamed "Dunkirk House."

5 **The Great Plague**—June of 1665 was a month of extraordinary heat, and the winter and spring had been the driest ever known in England. London was at that time a city of narrow streets, overhanging houses, and no drainage of any systematic kind. There was in this summer no grass to be seen anywhere, and the country round London looked dreary, parched, brown, and dusty. In the coffee-houses—which were the clubs of the seventeenth century—hushed whispers pass from man to man, that the Dutch fleet is in the waters of the Thames, and that the plague is in the city. On the 7th of June, Pepys, the Secretary of the Navy, sees in Drury Lane "two or three houses marked with a red cross upon the doors (the 'fatal red cross, a foot in length'), and 'Lord have mercy upon us' writ there." Into the ill-drained and narrow streets of London neither light nor fresh air could easily penetrate. The richer people fled, and even the physicians and the clergy ran to the country for their lives. The streets were

The Great
Plague
1665

filled all day and all night with "coaches and wagons and carts" hurrying away with goods, women, servants, and children," and the king and his sorry court were the first to set the bad example of flight. Only the stout old Duke of Albemarle, Monek, among the higher ranks, stood to his post, and fearlessly chewed his tobacco and drank his strong beer, in his town garden. All night—and, when the plague had advanced, all day and all night—the dead-cart went its rounds, with the weird noise of the gloomy bell, and the hoarse voices of the buriers crying, "Bring out your dead!" Slowly it rumbled along, picking up a corpse in this house and another in that, until it appeared at the mouth of a vast and deep common foss or grave, into which it shot at once sixteen or seventeen bodies, uncoffined and unshrouded, unattended and uncared for by friends or by relations. "The people fell thick as leaves in autumn when they are shaken by a mighty wind," grass grew everywhere in the silent and untrodden streets,—silent but for the groans of the dying and the doomed,—rows of houses stood empty, and those that were occupied were marked with the red cross, and a strange and wild-looking man walked the streets day and night at a swift even pace, speaking to no one, but constantly uttering the words, "Oh, the great and dreadful God!" In September a huge bonfire was kindled at every sixth house, and kept burning day and night, ten thousand people died in one week, and in six months more than a hundred thousand had perished. Most of the clergy had fled, but the Nonconforming ministers had the courage to stay with the people, to preach from the forsaken pulpits, to visit the sick, to relieve the poor, and to minister to the last moments of the dying. The reward which these brave men received for their self-denying work from Parliament was the Five Mile Act.

(1) The Plague of 1665 is called The Great Plague, because it was the worst—the last of many which, under the names of The Death, The Black Death, etc., had frequently devastated London and England. The narrow, ill ventilated streets, the filthy lanes and alleys, the want of systematic drainage, the complete ignorance of the time as to the value of pure air and cold water made the great cities of mediæval and of later Europe hot beds and forcing houses for all kinds of pestilence. "The terrible visitor came to London once in every twenty years, and then swept away a fifth of the inhabitants"

(2) The most picturesque account of the Plague is given by Defoe in his *Journal of the Plague Year*. There are also some vigorous verses on the subject in Dryden's

Annus Mirabilis (= Wonderful Year—because the Plague and the Fire both fell within a twelvemonth)

6 The Fire of London —Not long after the Plague—in 1666—another terrible disaster fell upon the city of London. On the morning of the second of September, at three o'clock, Mr Pepys looks out of his window and sees that the east end of London is on fire. The weather is again dry and very hot, and a furious hurricane from the east is storming over the doomed city. The Thames is covered with boats filled with people and furniture, and it marks the old English love of music, that every third boat contains "a pair of virginals¹ in it." The poor pigeons, of which the citizens were very fond, flutter pitifully about the windows and balconies, and then drop suddenly down into the fire. The houses are mostly of wood, the roofs are of thatch—and that is very dry, and the fiery flashes from one burning house shoot up and drop upon another a few yards off, and, in a moment, that also is aflame. No power can arrest the foe. The fire—"a most horrid, malicious, bloody flame"—covers the city in a great arch more than a mile long, the smoke streams into the country in a black column fifty miles in extent, the sun shines through it with

The Fire of
London
1666

a colour like blood, and men in distant counties walk along the lanes and country roads under a dark shade. The half-burnt leaves of books are carried by the breeze as far as Windsor, the fields are filled with heaps of goods, and we-struck men and women sitting upon them, sad-hearted but tearless. Four hundred streets, thirteen thousand two hundred dwelling-houses, eighty-nine churches, and all the public buildings of London, were consumed. The king and his brother, the Duke of York, showed great energy and thoughtfulness during the fire, by superintending the blowing up of houses with gunpowder, so as to arrest the march of the flames. The origin of the fire was ascribed to the Roman Catholics. A tall pillar—now called *The Monument*²—was erected to perpetuate this slander, and one Hubert, a poor, half-crazy, working French silver-smith, who gave himself up as the fire-raiser, was tried for it and hanged.

¶ (1) The Fire raged four days. The loss amounted, it is said, to £7,000,000—a sum probably equal to thirty or forty millions to day.

¹ Called also a *spinnet* a kind of small piano

² At Fish Street Hill near London Bridge. The part of the inscription ascribing the fire to the Catholics is now erased.

(ii) "The 'Tall Bully' lifted his head and lied in choice Latin for a century and three years, and, when the majority of men had grown more truly religious, and did not hold it the duty of one Christian to hate another who differed from him in doctrine and ceremonies, the corporation of London wisely obliterated the offensive record"—*to destroy, to redress*
—KNIGHT

7 The Dutch War—The Dutch had long been our rivals in commerce, and a war with them had been going on in these two miserable years. The war was very popular. Both sides were brave and stubborn fighters, and excellent sailors, and one battle in the Downs—fought in June 1666—lasted for four days. The Dutch under the great De Ruyter, the English under Albemarle and Prince Rupert. Parliament voted large supplies for the war, but Charles pocketed these for his own uses,—for his garden parties and his theatrical entertainments, his gambling and his court favourites,—the ships lay unrepared and rotting in the docks, the sailors idle and unpaid until they rose in a state of mutiny. The coast of England lay open to the enemy, the Dutch were for six weeks masters of the Channel. In 1667 a Dutch fleet sailed up the Medway, battered down a fort at Sheerness, broke through a chain in front of the docks at Chatham, burnt all the vessels which they found there—except the *Royal Charles*, which had been bought by England, and which was sent to Holland as a trophy, and the guns of a hostile fleet were heard, to the terror and astonishment of the inhabitants, in the city of London. The success of the Dutch was the cause of Lord Clarendon's fall. He was impeached and fled to the Continent. The Cabal Ministry took office, and there were fewer checks than ever upon King Charles's conduct.

The Dutch
in the
Medway
1667.

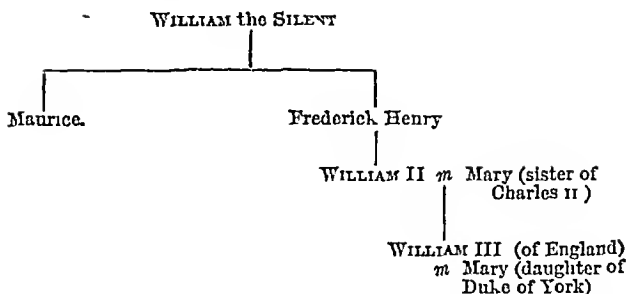
(i) The Dutch were in the Medway in June 1667 and in the month of July following, a peace was patched up with Holland.

(ii) "When the Dutch fleet was in the Thames, it was against the Chancellor (Clarendon) that the rage of the populace was chiefly directed. His windows were broken, the trees of his garden were cut down, and a gibbet was set up before his door. But nowhere was he more detested than in the House of Commons"—MACAULAY

(iii) These two facts mark the nadir of England's descent: our king takes the money of France, our sailors take the money of the Dutch. "Everybody now a days," says Pepys, "reflect upon Oliver and commend him, what brave things he did, and made all the neighbouring princes fear him."

(iv) Lord Clarendon's daughter, Anne Hyde, made a secret marriage with the Duke of York. In this way, Clarendon became the grandfather of two queens of England—Mary and Anne.

GENEALOGY OF WILLIAM III



8 Our Most Religious and Gracious King—The presence of the Dutch in the Medway marks the lowest point to which England had sunk, and forms the strongest contrast to the height of her power under the rule of Cromwell. "It was a dreadful spectacle," says Mr Evelyn, "as ever Englishman saw, and a dishonour never to be wiped off" But it was only an outward mark of the terrible corruption within—a corruption induced by the king and his court, who thought of nothing but pleasure, and who cared nothing for the rights of others, or for their duties to them. While the king lavished pensions and presents upon his favourites, the servants of the royal household were absolutely starving. No one was paid. The fine gentlemen and cavaliers of the court thought it rather a noble thing to be in debt. Musicians, footmen, falconers, huntsmen, watermen, messengers, servants of all kinds, high and low, had not been paid any wages for three or four or five years. The sailors deserted to the Dutch, and shouted to their countrymen on the river, "We did heretofore fight for tickets, now we fight for dollars." The king's own harper, who used to play to Charles after dinner, died of want, and his body had to be buried at the expense of the parish. And, all this time, "our most religious and gracious" king was seeking his ease and his pleasure, gambling away the money of the nation, living among low women and singing boys, and drawing a large pension from the generosity of a foreign king. In fact, the king of England was the paid servant of the king of France. This was what the Restoration had come to.

(i) "The spirit of patriotism was trodden out of the English sailors by neglect and oppression. The sailors' wives went up and down the streets of Wapping, crying, 'This (the desertion to the Dutch) comes of your not paying our husbands! —KNIGHT

(7) There were at least four occasions on which Charles sold himself to Louis XII—
 (1) Under the secret Treaty of Dover, in 1670, Charles was to get £200,000 a year on condition that he would declare himself a Catholic. (2) In 1673 Charles wanted 50,000 crowns—to be paid annually—on condition that he proposed Parliament for 5 years. (3) By his secret treaty with France in 1670, Charles is to receive 500,000 livres if (a) he dissolves Parliament (b) disburses his standing army, and (c) refuses aid to the Dutch. (4) In 1671, Charles was to receive 5,000,000 livres from Louis in the course of the 5 years—"without," says the Duke of York, "any condition on the king's side but that of friendship, but promises on the French part not to disturb Flanders nor Holland." The Duke adds "The king's necessities had long been great, and the Parliament refractory and insolent."

3 The Treaty of Dover—The anger of the nation at the success of the Dutch war, to some extent, appeased by the dismissal of the Lord Chancellor Clarendon, who was impeached by the Commons, and had to flee the country. England ^{fell} ^{clarendon} was now jealous of the growing power of Louis, and ^{The Cabal} 1667. the king's advisers made an alliance with Sweden and Holland—called the Triple Alliance—against the king of France. But, while these arrangements were going on, Charles ^{The Triple} ^{Alliance} was secretly engaged in betraying the nation, and in ¹⁶⁶⁸ selling himself at a higher price than before to the French king. This new sale of himself was effected by the secret Treaty of Dover, 22d May 1670. Under this treaty Charles was to declare himself a Roman Catholic as soon as this should seem prudent, to establish Roman Catholicism in his kingdom, and to help Louis in his war against Holland—the power with which Charles had just entered into alliance; while Louis was to pay to Charles a large sum down, an annual allowance of £200,000, and to send him six thousand French troops to crush any opposition to his plan that might arise in England. The advisers of the Crown were at that time known as the Cabal,¹ a term derived from the secret writings of the Jews, but applied more especially to these men, as their initials—the initials either of their names or their titles, Clifford, Lord Arlington, the Duke of Buckingham, Ashley (afterwards Lord Shaftesbury) and the Duke of Lauderdale—exactly formed that word. Of these, only two were made acquainted with the article of the treaty pledging Charles to become a Roman Catholic, and to the remaining three a false treaty, from which this

¹ Cabal, which secret conveys the idea.

article was left out, was exhibited Charles and his government were, as usual, much pressed for money, and they determined upon an act of the most disgusting brigandage. A proclamation was suddenly issued in January 1672, suspending all payments from the Treasury for one year, and thus private persons were robbed of their money, to promote the designs of a fraudulent council and an abandoned court. This was an act of brigandage and bad faith towards the nation. A similar act towards a foreign nation with whom we were at peace was perpetrated in March of 1672. A Dutch fleet of merchantmen, carrying spices, was sailing homewards from the Levant, and orders—piratical orders—were issued to our admirals to capture it. The convoy of the Dutch fleet beat off the English, and the nation was spared the disgrace of open robbery. Our admirals were bitterly ashamed of the orders they had received. War was soon after proclaimed against Holland, and an indecisive naval battle was fought in Southwold Bay.

✓ This refusal to repay the loans that had fallen due was in reality an act of national bankruptcy. £1,300,000 was at this time due to the Bankers and others who had advanced money. A proclamation was issued suspending all payments for one year. Interest was promised but this was not paid for many years. "The shutting of the exchequer came like a clap of thunder on the city. There was a run upon the goldsmiths, the most respectable merchants were obliged to break, private families, widows and orphans were ruined."

10 **The Popish Plot**—To carry out his secret promise to Louis of bringing back the country to Roman Catholicism, Charles issued a proclamation or Declaration of Indulgence suspending the action of all penal laws in ecclesiastical matters—a measure which relieved the Nonconformists on the one side, and the Catholics on the other. But the Nonconformists refused, with indignation, to give their support to this "indulgence", while the Opposition in Parliament, or

The Test
Act
1673

Country Party, headed by Lord Shaftesbury, an able but unprincipled man, brought in and passed in 1673 the Test Act, which, among other things, compelled all who held office to reject the doctrine of Transubstantiation. The passing of this Act compelled the Duke of York to resign his position of Lord High Admiral. And now some inklings of the secret agreement between Charles and the French king began to get about, when suddenly the people of England were driven almost frantic by the

rumour of a new Popish plot the Jesuits were to govern England, the king was to be assassinated, all good Protestants were to be massacred, and a French expedition was to land

✓ (i) The Declaration of Indulgence, in 1672, at once released John Bunyan, who had been twelve years in Bedford Prison. "Ministers returned, after years of banishment, to their homes and their flocks. Chapels were reopened. The gaols were emptied. Thousands of Quakers, who had been the especial objects of persecution, were set free to worship God after their own fashion."

(ii) Alderman Love, one of the M P s for the City of London, himself a Dissenter, said "I had much rather see the Dissenters suffer by the rigour of the law, though I suffer with them, than see all the laws of England trampled under the foot of the prerogative."

(iii) The Country Party in the House maintained against the Court Party that penal statutes could not be suspended without the consent of Parliament. Hence, the Declaration of Indulgence had to be recalled, and its very opposite—the Test Act—was passed by the House.

✓ (iv) Since the Gunpowder Plot of 1605, the people of England were always ready to believe anything of the Roman Catholics.

11 Titus Oates—In August 1678, a man named Titus Oates, who had studied at the Jesuit seminary of St Omer, appeared before Sir Edmundbury Godfrey, a magistrate, and swore to the ^{Titus Oates} details of this terrible plot. Every one was alarmed. But 1678 the alarm quickened into a fearful panic when, two months after, Sir E. Godfrey was found lying stabbed upon Primrose Hill. No man felt safe. Every one went about with a small flail loaded with lead, which was called the Protestant flail. The trade of "Informer" began to flourish, and even the queen was accused of conspiring to poison her husband. Oates was lodged in Whitehall, had guards assigned him, dressed like a bishop, held the lives of high as well as low at his mercy, and received a pension of £1200 a year. He called himself the "Saviour of the Nation," every one he pointed out was arrested, "the very breath of him was pestilential," and the lives of many innocent Roman Catholics were sworn away.

(i) Though Charles himself was a Catholic, he had not the common honesty or ordinary good feeling to refuse to sign the death warrants of these poor Catholics whom he perfectly well knew to be innocent. The worst case was that of Plunkett, archbishop of Armagh, who was executed in London on charges well known to be false.

(ii) Viscount Stafford, a member of the Norfolk family, though perfectly innocent, was beheaded on Tower Hill.

12 **The Secret Betrayed**—And now another terrible story excited the nation. Louis could no longer trust the word of Charles, and was also determined to punish him for having allowed his niece, the daughter of the Duke of York, to marry France's great enemy, the Prince of Orange. He accordingly instructed Montague, the English ambassador at Paris, to make known to Parliament the existence of a secret treaty, by which Charles was to have received six millions of livres—a treaty which was dated only five days after a grant of money had been obtained from Parliament for carrying on the war against France. The wrath of Parliament and the country kindled and grew to a white heat, and, under the influence of this feeling, an Act was passed to exclude Roman Catholics from both Houses, and a Bill, called the Exclusion Bill, was also brought in, shutting out James, Duke of York, from the succession.

Louis XIV
betrays
Danby
1678.

(i) The consideration given by Charles for the six millions of livres was to disband his standing army, and not to assist the Dutch.

(ii) The Exclusion Bill was stopped in the House of Lords by the influence of the Prince of Orange. The reason was that he now saw that under it, not his own wife, Mary, but the Duke of Monmouth, had the best chance of succeeding. He preferred the Duke of York to the Duke of Monmouth.

13 **Habeas Corpus Act**—This Bill was thrown out, but Charles's Third Parliament succeeded in carrying the great Habeas Corpus¹ Act in the year 1679. From the time of Magna Charta every Englishman had a right to an early trial, but in practice many ways had been discovered of violating this right. The present statute enacted that every judge should be obliged to grant a writ for bringing up a prisoner before a judge or magistrate at any time it was demanded, and heavy penalties were attached to the refusal of such a writ on the part of a judge, or to disobedience of it on the part of a juror. The Exclusion Bill was again introduced in 1680, was again passed by the House of Commons, but rejected by the Lords. The king declared that, in the interest of his brother, he never would consent to it, the Commons refused to grant supplies, and Parliament was dissolved.

The Habeas
Corpus Act
1679

14 **Scotland**—The west of Scotland had always been the stronghold of the Covenanters. To break down this spirit, and to reduce

¹ A Latin phrase meaning "You are entitled to possess the body of"

the people to conformity, a number of Highland regiments, called the "Highland Host," had been marched down and quartered upon the inhabitants—In the extreme east of Scotland there was also great dissatisfaction. Archbishop Sharp was driving in his carriage with his daughter across Magus Moor, a wild stretch of country between Cupar-Fife and St Andrews, when a body of Covenanters fell upon him, dragged him from his coach, and put him to death with pistol and sword. They then fled to the West, raised a small but determined body of men, and defeated General John Graham of Claverhouse at a place called Drumclog. The Duke of Monmouth, an illegitimate son of Charles II, was sent down, and defeated the Covenanters at Bothwell Bridge. Monmouth was found to be too kindly and lenient, and his place was taken by the Duke of York, who set to work with all his heart and soul, by the help of the gallows, the sword, the torture of the thumb-screw and the boot, to break the spirit of the Covenanters and to leave a stain upon his own name. Monmouth, on his return to London, became the popular hero, he was welcomed with banquets and the ringing of bells, and the people of London, who hated the Duke of York, passionately asserted that this young hero was the rightful heir to the throne.

Defeat of
the Cove-
nanters
1679.

✓ 15 Whig and Tory—It was in the year 1679 that the party names of *Whig* and *Tory* first came into use. The term *Whig* was first applied to the western Covenanters of Scotland, and from them transferred to the party which was opposed to the court, and bent on shutting out the Duke of York from the succession, and the name of *Tory*, which originally belonged to the outlaws who had fled to the bogs of Ireland, was applied to those who fought in support of the king's party and the court. The Duke of York was a bigoted Roman Catholic, while the Duke of Monmouth, the eldest of Charles's children, was a Protestant, and the Protestant favourite. Charles had ruled without a Parliament for the last four years of his reign, and the Whigs, driven to despair, began to plot insurrections in favour of the Duke of Monmouth, while some of the more desperate conspired together to assassinate the king and his brother. This conspiracy was known as the Rye House Plot,¹

The Rye
House Plot
1683

¹ On the river Lea, near London.

from the place of meeting of the conspirators Rumbold, an old Cromwellian soldier, was the chief conspirator. The plot was betrayed by one of its members, and William Lord Russell, and Algernon Sidney, a noble and ardent republican, neither of whom knew anything of the plot whatever, were arrested. Both were tried, found guilty, and executed. The Duke of Monmouth fled to the Continent. The power of the Whig party was broken, the discovery of the Rye House Plot made the crown irresistible, Charles became an absolute king, and, overriding the law, he replaced the Duke of York in his office of Lord High Admiral.

✓ (i) The Whigs were at first called "The Petitioners" and the Tories "The Abhorrrers". That is, the former petitioned in favour of the Exclusion Bill, the latter abhorred it. The Tories upheld the doctrine of "Divine Right" the Whigs looked on Parliament as an integral part of the Constitution, not to be overridden by any prerogative whatsoever of the king. London and the boroughs were the strong holds of the Whigs. Oxford and other cities of the Tories.

✓ (ii) At a Parliament which met at Oxford in 1681—when party feeling ran so high that the members brought armed followers with them—Charles made an offer that, if the Duke of York were named heir, the actual administration of the country should be in the hands of the Prince of Orange and other Protestants.

✓ (iii) To break down the strength of the Whigs in London and the boroughs, Charles had recourse to an old statute—Quo Warranto—of Edward I. (See Pt I p 152) London and other boroughs were called upon to produce their charters, clever lawyers were set to find flaws in them, flaws were found, new charters must be asked for. New charters were granted, but at the same time new Corporations, consisting exclusively of Tory members, were also named. In the case of the other boroughs the same course was pursued, only that the king reserved to himself the right of vetoing all or any elections to municipal offices. Again, the House of Commons was elected by these corporations! Thus, on this side too, the king was absolute for the Corporations were packed, and the House was packed.

Borough after borough was compelled to surrender its privileges and new charters were granted which gave the ascendancy everywhere to the Tories' —MACAULAY

~ (iv) In 1682 the Duke of Monmouth made a royal progress through England, by permission of his father, Charles II, and "touched for the King's evil". It was believed by many that Charles had been really married to Lucy Walters, the mother of Monmouth. His father allowed him to bear the royal arms without the bar sinister. He was Duke of Monmouth in England, Duke of Buccleuch in Scotland, Master of the Horse, Chief Justice in Eyre south of the Trent, and Chancellor of the University of Cambridge.

~ (v) By the law of England a charge of treason cannot be supported by one witness only. But the jury found Russell guilty.

(vi) Against Algernon Sidney there was also only one witness but the court

admitted, as a second, a treatise he had written on Republicanism. That a man should, theoretically, prefer Republicanism as a form of government, is very far from being a proof that he would join in murdering a king to bring it about.

16 The Death and Character of Charles — On Sunday evening, the 1st of February 1685, the king of England was sitting in a splendid chamber in Whitehall, surrounded by his courtiers gambling and love-making, a French boy was singing love-songs, and there was no sign of anything but gaiety, jollity, and pleasure. On Monday morning he was struck with apoplexy, and on Thursday his case was hopeless. His brother James asked him if he should send for a priest, and the king replied, "For God's sake, brother, do, and please to lose no time." Father Huddleston, the priest who had preserved his life after the battle of Worcester, was brought to him, and administered the last sacraments. At noon on Friday the king was dead. Odious and degrading as his government had been, the people sorrowed for the king, but with their sorrow mingled the fear that a worse king than he stood with one foot upon the steps of the throne — Charles had excellent natural abilities, artistic tastes, great wit, some humour, charming and attractive manners, and the most perfect tact, but he was selfish to the core, without the smallest regard for others, unless they ministered to his own pleasures, and without the smallest respect for principle. In the face of a strong opposition, and amid the bitter strife of parties, he always managed to get his own way, but he left behind him in the Declaration of Indulgence an inheritance of evil, which sank his brother James beyond recovery and beyond hope. He had the courage of his house, and, when tortured with agony on his death-bed, he asked his attendants to pardon him for the trouble he was giving them. Epigrams are rarely truthful, but perhaps the epigram made by Rochester upon Charles II states the truth, and nothing but the truth

Death of
Charles
1685.

"Here lies our sovereign Lord the King,
Whose word no man relies on,
Who never said a foolish thing,
And never did a wise one."

(i) "Charles died as he had lived brave, witty, cynical, even in the presence of death. Tortured as he was with pain, he begged the bystanders to forgive him for being so unconscionable a time in dying." — GREEN

(ii) "Charles II, essentially different in character from his father, had inherited that

quality of his family which mainly led to the tragedies of *Tothoringay* and *White hall*. He was a double dealer "

So ended the worst reign in English history whose sole greatness was the Habeas Corpus Act (1679) With his subjects Charles was always popular the nicknames Old Rowley and the Merry Monarch attest even now the liking that they bore him. —GREEN

17 The Work of Parliament—The "Convention Parliament" of 1660, appointed by the old Rump, passed the Act of Indemnity, abolished Feudal Dues, and disbanded the Parliamentary Army. The First Parliament of Charles, which met in 1661, and was not dissolved till 1679, was furiously loyal, eager for vengeance, and anxious to bring back the old order. It passed the Corporation Act, the Act of Uniformity, the Conventicle Act, and the Five-Mile Act. In 1665 this Parliament granted a million and a quarter for the Dutch war—and for this war only, and thus established one of the corner-stones of British Constitutional freedom—that of Appropriation of Supplies. In 1673 this Parliament also compelled Charles to withdraw his Declaration of Indulgence, and thus laid down the principle that the king is not above the law. Its reply to Charles's "Declaration" was the Test Act. In 1674 it passed a resolution against a Standing Army, and this resolution was afterwards embodied in the "Bill of Rights" and in the "Mutiny Act" of 1689. In the year 1678, the House, excited and alarmed by the numerous and perpetual rumours of Popish Plots, passed an act for "disabling Papists from sitting in either House of Parliament". Charles's Second Parliament met in 1679, and in the same year passed the valuable Habeas Corpus Act. This Act was in reality only a part of the Magna Charta, but this clause had been frequently forgotten and more frequently infringed. His Third Parliament met in 1679, but was prorogued seven times. The House of Commons, in this Parliament, passed the Exclusion Bill, but it was thrown out by the Lords. The Fourth Parliament met in 1681 at Oxford, discussed the Exclusion Bill, and was sent away in a week. After this, in defiance of the Triennial Bill, Parliament was never called again till the end of the reign, and Charles looked for his supplies to a foreign and a hostile prince—Louis of France.

The Test Act, on the positive side, commanded all holders of office under the Crown to take the sacrament according to the forms of the Church of England, on the negative side, to renounce and deny the doctrine of transubstantiation.

18 Great Men—The greatest statesman in the earlier part of Charles II's reign is Edward Hyde, Earl of Clarendon. To him is due most of the moderation and all of the common sense that characterise this period. Of the Cabal Ministry, which succeeded him, the most distinguished men were Antony Ashley Cooper, Earl of Shaftesbury, and Lord Lauderdale. After the fall of this Ministry, Thomas Osborne, Earl of Danby, rose to power, but fell through the machinations of Louis XIV. The two prominent personages round whom plots centred and political parties fought and struggled were the Duke of York, the king's brother, and the Duke of Monmouth, the king's son. The former was supported by the Tories and the Universities, the latter was the hope of the Whigs and the ultra-Protestants. The man in this reign who earned the highest distinction for infamy was Titus Oates. Two men who suffered for their political opinions, and also for the cause of political freedom, deserve high and honourable mention in the story of England's growth, —William Lord Russell, and Algernon Sidney.

19 Social Facts—For the first time in the history of England a systematic attempt was made to light the streets of London in 1684—Lines of stage coaches were started for the most-important towns, such as York, Chester, Exeter, Oxford, and Cambridge, these coaches did as much as fifty miles a day in summer, when the roads were not quite so muddy and so full of ruts, and they reached their journey's end in comparative safety, unless when they were stopped by highwaymen.—The Duke of York received the monopoly of carrying letters by post, under his care, the service was tolerably well maintained, and the revenue of the Post Office went on constantly increasing—In spite of Milton's eloquence, arguments, and influence, there had never existed complete liberty of the Press. The "Licensing Act" of 1662 put an end to the existence of the numerous newspapers that had sprung up just before the Restoration. This act allowed any one to print a sermon, a history, or a poem, but it did not grant to any man the privilege of publishing a daily or weekly newspaper. The only two licensed newspapers in London were the "London Gazette" and "The Observer." Of provincial newspapers there were none their place was supplied by "News Letters" which were sent weekly from London into the country—Science made great strides, and the Royal Society was founded in

the years of the Restoration Chemistry became fashionable, fine gentlemen talked about telescopes and air-pumps, Charles had a laboratory at Whitehall, and Prince Rupert invented a new method of engraving on copper

SHORT CHRONOLOGY AND SUMMARY OF CHARLES II'S REIGN

1660	Restoration of Stuart Line in the person of Charles II. (a) Clarendon chief adviser (b) Act of Indemnity (with the exception of Regicides) (c) Tonnage and poundage granted Charles for life.	1672	(a) Duke of York avows his Catholicism (b) Declaration of Indulgence.
1661	Corporation Act. (a) Charles marries Catherine of Braganza (Bombay and Tangiers as dowry) (b) Act of Uniformity (c) Sale of Dunkirk (last Continental possession)	1673	(a) The Test Act (b) End of the Cabal
1664	Conventicle Act.	1675	Charles is bribed by Louis XIV to prorogue Parliament.
1665	Great Plague of London. (a) Five Mile Act. (b) Appropriation of Supplies.	1677	Mary (eldest daughter of the Duke of York and Anne Hyde) marries William of Orange
1666	The Fire of London.	1678	(a) Secret Treaty with France (b) Oates's Popish Plot
1667	(a) End of Clarendon's administration. (b) The Cabal	1679	Habeas Corpus Act.
1668	The Triple Alliance (England, Holland, and Sweden against France)	1680	Exclusion Bill (passes the Commons, is thrown out by the Lords)
1670	Secret Treaty of Dover	1682	The Duke of Monmouth makes a royal progress
		1683	Rye House Plot (a) William Lord Russell executed. (b) Algernon Sidney executed.
		1685	Death of Charles II.

IMPORTANT CONTEMPORARY EVENTS

1661.	(a) Act of Settlement in Ireland (b) Episcopacy restored in Scotland	1672	William of Orange Stadtholder of Holland
1662	Mile Act in Scotland.	1681.	Strasburg is seized by the French in time of peace

(i) By the "Act of Settlement, the Cromwellian allotment of lands to adventurers and soldiers was confirmed. In 1665 many of them, however, had to give up one third of their holdings under the "Act of Explanation"

(ii) The "Mile Act" in Scotland was of the same nature as the Five Mile Act in England only the ejected ministers were not allowed to settle within one mile of a corporate town or borough

CHAPTER V

JAMES THE SECOND

Born 1633 Succeeded (at the age of 52) in 1685 Deposed 1689
Reigned 4 years

JAMES STUART, II of England and VII of Scotland, the second surviving son of Charles I and Henrietta Maria, was born at St James's Palace on October 15, 1633. He was created Duke of York in 1643. He served both in the French and the Spanish armies. At the Restoration he was appointed Lord High Admiral and Lord Warden of the Cinque Ports. He made no important mistakes in his administration of the Admiralty. He married, first, Anne Hyde, daughter of the Earl of Clarendon, who died in 1671. She had two daughters, Mary, who married William Prince of Orange, and Anne (afterwards Queen Anne), who married Prince George of Denmark. James was, in the year 1679, made Lord High Commissioner for Scotland, and, while there, was guilty of the greatest cruelty to the Covenanters. In 1673 he married the Catholic Princess, Mary d'Este of Modena. Their son was James, the "Old Pretender." He ascended the throne in February 1685, fled in December 1688, landed in Ireland in March 1689, fled from Ireland in July 1690, and died at St Germain's, in France, in 1701.

CONTEMPORARY SOVEREIGNS

FRANCE LOUIS XIV

SPAIN CHARLES II

POPE INNOCENT XI

1 James II, 1685-1688 —The Duke of York closed his brother's eyes, passed into another room, where he spent fifteen minutes in meditation, and then came out and presented himself as James II to the assembled courtiers. He assured them that, though a Roman Catholic, he would defend the Church of England as by law established, and respect to the full all the laws made by Parliament, and the nation, in general, looked upon him as a man of high character—as a man of his word. But in a few days he went openly to mass in royal state, and, very soon after his coronation, he became,

like his brother, a pensioner of France. His chief advisers were Lord Rochester (his brother-in-law), Halifax, Godolphin, and Sunderland. Rochester and the two last formed the "interior cabinet." Early in this reign, Oates was tried and condemned to be whipped, to please the Catholics, and he was nearly whipped to death. The seed sown by Shaftesbury and the Whigs began to bear fruit, and two simultaneous attacks were arranged between the Earl of Argyll and the Duke of Monmouth. The Earl of Argyll landed in the west of Scotland, where he was not strongly supported, and, betrayed by a spy, he was soon after executed, like his father, in the High Street of Edinburgh.

(1) James II. was so cowardly that he had even fears about summoning a Parliament, lest he should give offence to Louis XIV. Like his brother Charles, he became a pensioner of the French king. "He wept with joy over the French bills of exchange" "He is as fond," said Louis, "of my pistoles as ever his brother was."

(2) Titus Oates was sentenced to be pilloried, to be whipped from Aldgate to Newgate, forty eight hours after, to be whipped from Newgate to Tyburn to be imprisoned for life, and to be exposed in the pillory five times every year. He is said to have received 1700 stripes on the second day. He was afterwards ironed in the darkest hole of Newgate.

2 The Duke of Monmouth—Four months after the accession of James, the Duke of Monmouth landed at Lyme, in Dorsetshire. The people ran joyfully to meet him, crying, "A Monmouth! A Monmouth! The Protestant religion!" At Taunton he committed a fatal blunder: he took upon himself the title of *King*. Thousands went to meet him, the narrow streets were crowded—every man with a green bough in his hat, the windows were hung with garlands and with tapestry, the road strewn with flowers, and a long procession of young girls, dressed in white, came to offer him twenty-seven standards, which they had worked with their own hands. On the 6th of July he made a night attack upon the forces of the king at Sedgemoor, and was completely defeated. His men, mostly armed with scythes fixed on straight handles, made a gallant defence, but they were outnumbered. Monmouth fled, and, some days after, he was found in a ditch on the borders of the New Forest, one pocket full of raw peas, which had been his only food, and in the other the *George* with which his father, Charles II., had invested him. He was brought to London, and the king was mean enough to have a personal interview with the man whose

Battle of
Sedgemoor
1685

life he had already determined not to spare. The weak Monmouth, whose hands were tied with a silk cord behind his back, fell upon his knees, and, crawling, embraced the feet of His Majesty, but all His Majesty wanted was to know whether there were others engaged in the plot.

(c) The manners of James II. in allowing an interview to a man whom he had resolved not to spare is like that of his brother in signing the death warrant of Archbishop Mordaunt, whom he knew to be entirely innocent.

Monmouth rode into Tottenham Park, where he was waiting, carrying his hat in his hand. He was dressed in a shining coat with a blue silk scarf and a purple coat. His long brown hair hung in curls upon his shoulders. His sweet lips were parted with a gracious smile. His beautiful brown eyes, which were never before so lovely, looked serene and benignant, truly there was never made any man more lovely than the Duke of Monmouth. The face of his father, and that of his uncle, King James, were dark and gloomy, but the Duke's face was usually bright and cheerful. King Charles's long nose in him was softened and reduced to the proportions of many a young man. In short, there was no feature that in his father was harsh and unlovely, leaving but what in his sweet and beautiful. —WALLEN DICKINSON

(d) John Churchill, afterwards Duke of Marlborough, in speaking of James II. said "his heart is as hard as this marble," and he struck the marble chimney piece with his clenched fist.

3. The Bloody Assizes — Monmouth's followers were treated with fearful severity. Chief-Justice Jeffreys, a man of the coarsest and most brutal nature, was sent down to try the prisoners, and he held what is known to posterity as the "Bloody Assizes." He bullied and browbeat prisoners and witnesses. He sentenced the accused against evidence, and he did all this with an accompaniment of insolence and brutality heightened by the excitement of copious draughts of wine. Though only thirty-six years of age, his two predominant passions were cruelty and avarice. He gratified the one by hanging three hundred and thirty persons, and the other by selling more than eight hundred prisoners as slaves to the West Indies, and pocketing a large part of the price paid for them. The pitch caldron was constantly boiling in the Assize towns, and the heads and limbs preserved in it were distributed over the lovely western country, where, for years after, in spite of storms and crows and foxes, they frightened the village labourer as he passed to his cottage in the evening gloom. The great oaks of the village greens had their ghastly load, the steeples of quiet country churches were decorated with gory heads, and even the direction posts at the corners of roads were transformed into gibbets. The dark memories of that cruel time still live in the western counties of England. —Dame Alice Lisle, an old lady of

seventy, the widow of John Lisle, one of Charles the First's judges, was put to death for having given a meal and a lodging to two fugitives whom she did not even know—Jeffreys, who boasted he had hanged more traitors than all his predecessors since the Conquest, and who had amassed a fortune of £34,000 by the sale of pardons, was made Lord High Chancellor of the kingdom

(i) "The peasant who had consented to perform this hideous office afterwards returned to his plough. But a mark like that of Cain was upon him. He was known through his village by the horrible name of William Boilman"—MACAULAY

√ (ii) Lady Lisle was sentenced by Jeffreys to be burnt alive, but James "mercifully" commuted the sentence to beheading

√ (iii) Three hundred and thirty prisoners were hanged, eight hundred and forty-one were sold as slaves (for ten years) to the West Indies. They were sold at from £10 to £15 a head, and the Queen begged for the price of a hundred of them.

4. James and his Advisers—These unsuccessful insurrections would have greatly strengthened the government of James, but his own conduct undid the good he might have gained from them. His advisers were the Earl of Sunderland and Father Petre, a Jesuit. All the moderate Roman Catholics, the Papal Nuncio, and even the Pope himself, Innocent XI, earnestly advised him to govern according to law, but he was headstrong, and obstinately bent upon his own ends. These ends were threefold—to obtain a repeal of the Habeas Corpus Act, to keep up a large standing army, and to abolish all the laws which excluded Roman Catholics from office. His advisers counselled him not to summon a Parliament, but to employ his dispensing power in regard to the Test Act and the Act of Uniformity. Clergymen, accordingly, who had become Romanists, were allowed to retain their livings, Roman Catholics were placed at the head of some of the Colleges in Oxford, and a pension was bestowed upon a Romish bishop.

√ (i) James prepared for his purpose of undermining the constitution of his country with the greatest care and, like his grandfather and his father, he made use of the letter of the law to destroy its true spirit and meaning. (a) He first of all got rid of those judges who would not be subservient to his views. "I am determined," he said, "to have twelve judges who will be all of my mind as to this matter (the dispensing power)." "Your Majesty," replied Jones, "may find twelve judges of your mind, but hardly twelve lawyers." (b) He next got up a case. He had given Sir Edward Hales, a Roman Catholic, the command of a regiment of foot, Hales had held his commission without taking the sacrament. James's coachman was employed to bring an action against him in the Court of King's Bench, eleven out of the twelve

judges gave their decision in Hales's (that is, in the king's) favour¹, the twelfth, Baron Strutt—a man of bad character—had been instructed for the sake of appearances to dissent. (c) James soon began to make a liberal use of his dispensing power. He called Roman Catholics to the Privy Council—among others, Father Pietro, an English Jesuit, and his chief adviser. He gave Roman Catholics livings in the Church and offices in the Universities.

(ii) James also established an Ecclesiastical Commission Court (an illegal act, for this kind of Court had been long abolished by Act of Parliament), the moving spirit in which was Jeffreys.

(iii) James made Obadiah Walker, a Roman Catholic, Master of University College, Oxford, and John Massey, another Roman Catholic, Dean of Christ Church.

(iv) "Soon, within the walls of Christ Church, an altar was decked, at which mass was daily celebrated."—MACAULAY.

5. The Declaration of Indulgence.—He dismissed the two Hydes, Clarendon and Rochester, his brothers-in-law, because they were staunch to their Protestant faith, and Father Pietro became his chief counsellor. More, he dissolved Parliament, ruled for two years without any Parliament at all, and tried to remodel the corporations of cities and boroughs in such a fashion as to get together a Parliament that would support him in his Declaration of Indulgence. In this and other ways he succeeded in alienating from himself the country gentry, the Church, and the Universities. Carmelites, Benedictines, and Franciscans appeared in their cowls and girdled robes in the streets of London, and openly boasted that they would soon walk in procession through Cheapside, and, when a riot broke out on the opening of a new Catholic chapel in the city, the king replied to it by the establishment of a camp of thirteen thousand men, officered by gentlemen of the "King's religion," at Hounslow, for the purpose of overawing the capital. James even compelled Wren to add side-aisles to his Plan of St. Paul's, that his monks and friars might march along them, chanting the hymns of their Church. On the 4th of April 1687, he published a Declaration of Indulgence, in which all penal laws against Nonconformity were suspended, and all religious tests done away with.

Camp at
Hounslow
1686

First Declaration of
Indulgence
1687.

(i) The trainbands were called out to quell the riots in the City, but they refused to act. "We cannot in conscience fight for Popery."

(ii) The camp at Hounslow became a favourite resort of the Londoners, and it

¹ "The effect of this judgment was to declare the sovereign absolute, and uncontrolled by laws made by Parliament."—HALE.

looked like an immense fair. It was the best place, the citizens thought, for picnics. "Mingled with the musketeers and dragoons, a multitude of fine ladies and gentlemen from Soho Square, sharpers from Whitefriars, invalids in sedans, monks in hoods and gowns, lacqueys in rich liveries, pedlars, orange girls, mischievous apprentices, and gaping clowns, were constantly passing and repassing through the long lanes of tents. In truth, the place was merely a gay suburb of the capital." —MACAULAY

(iii) "The common people, in the open streets, talked with freedom and contempt of James's wild measures to make a whole Protestant nation Papists. To drive all England into popery and slavery, he would find, would be teaching an old lion to dance."

6 Scotland and Ireland.—James had placed the government of Scotland in the hands of a noble, Lord Perth-and-Melfort who had turned Roman Catholic, and he put a Catholic governor in command of the Castle of Edinburgh. The Scottish Parliament was now called upon to pass an Act for the toleration of the Catholics, and the bribe of free-trade with England was offered them as an inducement. "Shall we sell our God?" was the indignant reply. But the persecution of the Covenanters went on under Claverhouse with terrible severity, and two women were tied to stakes on Solway Firth, to await slow drowning upon the rising of the tide.—The Viceroy in Ireland was a headstrong and stupid man, the Earl of Tyrconnel, who, in defiance of all law, filled the State offices with Roman Catholics. This man entered into secret arrangements with Louis XIV to make Ireland a dependency of France, with James as the nominal king. Even the Catholics themselves whistled the ballad of *Lillibullero*.

‘There was an old prophecy found in a bog,
Ireland shall be ruled by an ass and a dog
Lillibullero, bullen a la’

Tyrconnel was the dog, and James the ass. "The whole army, and, at last, the people both in city and country, were singing it perpetually. It was sung from one end of England to the other, and the author of it, Lord Wharton, boasted that he had rhymed James out of his dominions."

(i) Lord Perth-and-Melfort, while persecuting the Covenanters, was doing his utmost to remove all disabilities from the Catholics of Scotland.

(ii) James's policy in Ireland was to bestow all favours and offices on the Celts and Catholics, and to abolish the English ascendancy.

7 The Seven Bishops.—Early in 1688 the king issued a second

Declaration of Indulgence, and ordered it to be read in all churches and chapels throughout the kingdom on two successive Sundays. The Archbishop of Canterbury, Sancroft, and six bishops of his province, thereupon drew up a petition, which they presented to the king, praying to be excused from carrying out this order. When James read the petition, he broke out into a terrible rage. "This is flat rebellion! Did ever a good Churchman question the dispensing power before?" "We honour you," replied Bishop Ken, "but we fear God." The petition was printed and circulated throughout the country, and "it was so bayled, and roared through the streets by hawkers that people rose out of their beds to buy it." A warrant was made out for the committal of the seven bishops to the Tower. Surrounded by their guards, they passed through lines of weeping men and women, who knelt to ask their blessing, and they were followed to the Tower by a thousand boats from which came one unceasing cry of "God bless your lordships!" Their very guards in the Tower drank their health, and omitted the toast of the king. The miners of Cornwall threatened to march to London for the rescue of their countryman Trelawney, bishop of Bristol.

Second Declaration of Indulgence 1688.

"And shall Trelawney die?
And shall Trelawney die?
There's twenty thousand Cornish men
Will know the reason why

What was still more offensive to King James, a deputation of Non-conformists—who, he supposed, had been won over by his "indulgence"—waited upon the bishops in the Tower. So threatening was the temper of the people, that the ministers advised James to yield and to release the bishops, but he only grew more and more obstinate. "Never!" he cried, "it was indulgence that ruined my father." It was the "Declaration of Indulgence" that ruined James.

✓ (i) The Declaration of Indulgence was read in only four of the London churches, but, as soon as the first words were heard, the congregations rose and left.

✓ (ii) But the bishops and clergy had placed themselves in the following dilemma (a) They preached the divine right of Kings (b) They advocated the corresponding duty of absolute and passive obedience (c) James naturally thought that they would themselves yield this obedience, and also press it on their congregations (d) James therefore dispensed with the Test Act (e) If James could dispense with the Test Act, he could dispense with any Act of Parliament (f) The clergy were there

fore bound to support James in an attempt to overturn the ancient constitution of England.

(iii) James sent for the Seven Bishops and said to them "I will be obeyed My Declaration shall be published You are trumpeters of sedition What do you do here? Go to your dioceses, and see that I am obeyed" *insurrection*
extent of a bishop's jurisdiction

8 James's Defeat—On the day of trial, sixty noblemen sat upon the bench. At ten o'clock at night the jury brought in a verdict of "Not Guilty" The court re-echoed again and again with shouts of triumph, the crowds which packed Westminster Hall took up the cry with hundredfold volume and energy, the shouts passed from the hall to the streets and the river, from street to street the citizens' cry of exultation and deliverance startled the stranger and the visitor, and passed on even into the suburbs That night London was one blaze of bonfires and illuminations Horsemen spurred down the highways to carry the news to distant counties An express galloped down to Hounslow with the news James left at once for London He was no sooner out of the camp than a universal shout burst from every tent and camp-fire "What is that?" said the king "Nothing," was the reply, "only the soldiers are glad that the bishops are acquitted." "Do you call that nothing? So much the worse for them—so much the worse for them," muttered the poor headstrong monarch. The acquittal of the bishops proved the fall of the monarch—it sealed his doom

Acquittal of
the Seven
Bishops,
June 30
1688

(i) The Jury found themselves in difficulties One Michael Arnold was brewer to His Majesty, and he argued "Whatever I do, I am sure to be half ruined. If I say Not Guilty, I shall brew no more for the king if I say Guilty, I shall brew no more for anybody else" A rich country gentleman, Thomas Austin, said to Arnold, who wanted to give a verdict against the Bishops, "Look at me! I am the largest and strongest of the twelve men here and, before I find the Bishops Petition a libel, here I will stay till I am no thicker than a tobacco-pipe"

(ii) "Thousands sobbed aloud for joy"

(iii)

"A voice, from long-expecting thousands sent,
Shatters the air, and troubles tower and spire—
For justice hath absolved the innocent,
And tyranny is baulked of her desire,
Up, down, the busy Thames—rapid as fire
Coursing a train of gunpowder,—it went,
And transport finds in every street a vent,
Till the whole city rings like some vast choir —WORDSWORTH

9 Birth of a Son.—Two days after the bishops had been sent to the Tower, the Council announced that “it had pleased God to bless His Majesty and the Queen with the birth of a hopeful son” The Queen was his second wife—Mary of Modena Birth of the “Old Pretender,” June 10 1688 Under other circumstances, this event would have strengthened the crown and delighted the people, but a large majority of the nation believed it to be a trick—a mere invention of the Jesuits to keep Mary out of her rights,—and that another person’s child had been passed off as the Queen’s own daughter, Mary Hyde, the wife of the Prince of Orange, doubted the genuineness of the proclamation In fact, both his daughters had married Protestants, the second, Anne, being the wife of George, Prince of Denmark, and the nation had patiently endured James’s blunders in the belief that all would go well in the succeeding reign But the birth of James Francis Edward changed the prospect and dashed all their hopes to the ground This boy was the son of a Roman Catholic father and mother, he would be educated by the Jesuits, the miseries and difficulties would begin all over again, and would perhaps last for generations James had disgusted every party in the country, he had alienated every interest Not a single organic part of the nation was on his side, not the Church, nor the Law, nor the Country Gentlemen, nor Parliament (not even the House of Lords), nor the Whigs, nor the Tories, nor even the Roman Catholics as a whole The prosecution of the Bishops had alarmed the clergy, the birth of the Prince of Wales had shaken the loyalty of the Tories His tampering with the judges had disgusted every honest lawyer, his interference with the elections to Parliament—his desire to pack the House of Commons, had made the loyal country gentry a party of malcontents The Roman Catholic gentry—most of them good old English gentlemen—had no sympathy with the mongrel and cosmopolite Roman Catholic courtiers who flattered the weaknesses and excited the self-will and obstinacy of the sovereign They refused to be parties to sending up a corrupt House of Commons James stood alone sycophants he had, but no friends

(1) One serious mistake made by James was that he did not invite his daughter Anne (afterwards Queen Anne), who was at the time in London to be present in the palace when the child was presented to the assembled courtiers

(2) Evelyn writes in his Diary “A young prince born, which will cause disputes” A majority of the people fully believed that this child was supposititious

10 Letter to William of Orange—On the very day of the acquittal of the bishops, 30th June 1688, Admiral Herbert, dressed like a common sailor, left London for Holland with a letter of invitation to the Prince of Orange, signed by seven gentlemen, to come and deliver the country “from popery and slavery” The names included those of Henry Sidney, the brother of Algernon, the Earl of Devonshire, the chief of the old Whigs, and Edward Russell. William had been long expecting this invitation, and was very soon ready to obey it—James, on his side, found that even his own English army, which he had petted in every way, and which was officered with Roman Catholics, could not be relied on, and he sent over to Ireland for troops of his own creed. This added fuel to the hot indignation of his English subjects

Call to
William of
Orange
June 30,
1688

✓ The seven signatories were the Earls of Danby Devonshire and Shrewsbury Lord Lumley, Compton Bishop of London Henry Sidney and Edward Russell. The last was the cousin of William Lord Russell who was beheaded.

(i) “Not even the arrival of a brigade of Louis XIV’s musketeers would have excited such resentment and shame as our ancestors felt when they saw armed columns of Papists, just arrived from Dublin, moving in military pomp along the high roads”—MACAULAY

/ (ii) James made a double mistake. He sent for Irish troops, but he did not bring over enough. There were only enough to irritate, not to quell.

11 The Landing of William of Orange—William set sail for England with a fleet of six hundred ships, among which were fifty men-of-war and twenty-five frigates. The people of London had been praying for an east wind, which would have the double effect of detaining the Government fleet in the Thames and of bringing William rapidly over to England, and an east wind came. He landed at Torbay, “the most convenient place for landing horse of any in England.” When the news reached London, poor James was immediately deserted. Lord Cornbury, the king’s nephew, was the first to go, he was followed by Prince George of Denmark, the king’s son-in-law, by Lord Churchill, afterwards Duke of Marlborough, and many others. His daughter Anne, escorted by Bishop Compton, who had once been a soldier, and who now donned once more the buff coat and jack-boots of a trooper, was the next to flee to the hostile camp. “God help

Landing of
William,
November 5
1688

me!" cried James, in the bitterness of his soul, "even my own children have forsaken me!"

"The contagion," wrote James himself, "was spread so universally that all parts of England furnished the same news of risings and defections, the only strife was who should be foremost in abandoning the King."

12 The Flight of James—He sent off the Queen and her infant son to France, and, at three o'clock in the morning of the 11th of December, he set out to follow her, dropping the Great Seal of the kingdom into the Thames on his way. James was arrested by some fishermen at Sheerness, and brought back to London. He was ordered to go to Ham House, near Richmond, but he preferred Rochester. A guard was placed over him there, but private instructions were sent to them not to be too vigilant, and so James slipped away in the early morning, crossed to France, and presented himself to Louis XIV, who received him with much kindness and gave him the Palace of St Germain's to live in. Lord Chancellor Jeffreys, in mortal terror, disguised himself as a collier sailor, and was discovered at an alehouse in Wapping. The people were inclined to tear him to pieces, but, at his own entreaty, he was sent to the Tower, where he died of terror and 'drunkenness' in 1689.

Flight of
James II.,
December 23
1688

13 "The Glorious Revolution."—An assembly of peers and commons invited the Prince of Orange to take upon himself the duties of government, and he summoned a Convention of the Estates of the Realm for the 22d of January 1689, which declared the throne vacant. The sovereignty of Ireland went along with the monarchical power over England, and the Estates of Scotland also made a formal offer of the crown of that country to William and Mary. These two royal personages ruled as joint sovereigns, and, in the case of both countries, a Declaration of Right was drawn up, which asserted all the ancient rights, privileges, and liberties of the people of each monarchy. And thus was concluded the "Glorious Revolution of 1688." The "Divine Right" of kings had disappeared, the Reign of Parliament had begun.

The
Declaration
of Right,
January
1689.

† (1) The Declaration of Right was embodied in the Bill of Rights, which was passed in 1689 by the First Parliament of William and Mary.

✓✓(ii) The Declaration of Right contained, among many others, five negative and four positive declarations

- I NEGATIVE (a) The Dispensing Power is illegal
 (b) The Ecclesiastical Commission Court is illegal
 (c) Raising money without the sanction of Parliament ("by pretence of prerogative") is illegal
 (d) A standing army, in time of peace, is illegal
 (e) No Roman Catholic, nor person married to a Roman Catholic, can hold the Crown
- II POSITIVE (a) The election of members of Parliament must be free
 (b) Freedom of debate in Parliament is lawful and constitutional.
 (c) The right of petitioning the king belongs to all subjects
 (d) Frequent Parliaments must be held

14 **The Work of Parliament**—Parliament sat as little as possible during the reign of James II. His First Parliament—and it was his only one—was of an extreme Tory character, and had been carefully packed. It gave to James tonnage and poundage for life, and in addition, taxes on sugar and tobacco. This Parliament was prorogued in the end of 1685, and finally dissolved in 1687. James, in the meanwhile, tried to get together a Parliament of Catholics and Nonconformists. He sent out letters to the Lord-Lieutenants of counties to ask them to draw up a list of gentlemen, not being members of the Church of England, who would be fit to sit in the House of Commons. Most of them refused, many of them resigned. From this time, during James's reign, there was no Parliament in England, until the meeting of the famous Convention Parliament, which issued the well-known document entitled **THE DECLARATION OF RIGHT**.

(i) James's Parliament was carefully prepared by employing the new powers in the boroughs which had been gained by the cancelling of the old charters and the conferring of new ones.

(ii) James himself remarked that, "with the exception of about forty members, the House of Commons was just such as he should himself have named." "And this House of Commons it was in his power, as the law then stood, to keep to the end of his reign. —MACAULAY

15 **Great Men**—The men who made most talk during this short reign were, in Scotland, the daring Earl of Argyll, in England, the Duke of Monmouth. In the Roman Catholic party, Father Petre was the most distinguished man, and the confidential adviser of the king. Of the Whig Party, the most prominent members were Henry

Sidney and Edward Russell, while Lord Danby, who had been released from the Tower, was regarded with the greatest respect and trust by members of the Church of England.

16 Social Facts—The population of England during James's reign has been generally estimated at five millions. Commerce advanced with rapidity from the period of the Restoration, and the shipping of the country more than doubled itself during the thirty years that he between 1660 and 1690. The Revocation of the Edict of Nantes in the end of 1685 drove a hundred thousand of the most pious and industrious Frenchmen out of their country, many of these Huguenots came over to England and settled in many of the provincial towns and in London. Some of these founded the manufacture of silk in England, and it is to them that the silk trade of Spitalfields, in the east end of London, was mainly due.

SHORT CHRONOLOGY AND SUMMARY OF JAMES II's REIGN

1685 (a) Accession of James II. (Feb. 6)	(ii) Declaration of William of Orange, Oct. 10
(b) Battle of Sedgemoor (July 6)	(iii) Landing of William at Torbay, Nov. 5
1686 (a) The Hales Case	(iv) Flight of James II., Dec. 23
(i) Ecclesiastical Commission Court	
(c) Camp at Hounslow	INTERFICUM
1687 First Declaration of Indulgence	1688 THE DECLARATION OF RIGHT
1688 (i) Second Declaration of Indulgence, (clergy to read it)—May 4th.	Jan. 22
(a) Birth of the "Old Pretender" June 10	WILLIAM AND MARY
(b) Trial of the seven Bishops June 30	1689 James II., King in Ireland (May)
(c) Letter of the seven Bishops to William & Orange June 30	1690 Battle of the Boyne, July 1
	Flight of James, July 2

IMPORTANT CONTEMPORARY EVENTS

1685 (a) Execution of Earl of Argyll in Edinburgh	1686 League of Augsburg against Louis XIV
(b) Revocation of the Edict of Nantes	1689 Peter the Great, Czar of Russia.

CHAPTER VI

WILLIAM AND MARY

(1689-1694)

WILLIAM (alone)

(1694-1702)

William born 1650 Succeeded (at the age of 39) in 1689 Died 1702
 Mary born 1662 Succeeded (at the age of 27) in 1689 Died 1694.

William and Mary reigned 5 Years

William (alone) reigned 8 years

WILLIAM III, Prince of Orange, was born at the Hague in 1650. He was the son of William the Silent and Mary, daughter of Charles I of England. He married his cousin Mary II, the eldest daughter of James II. They had no children.

MARY II was born in London in the year 1662. She was the eldest child of James II and his first wife Anne Hyde, daughter of the Earl of Clarendon. "She was English by birth, and English also in her tastes and feelings. Her face was handsome, her port majestic, her temper sweet and lively, her manners affable and graceful." She died in 1694.

CONTEMPORARY SOVEREIGNS

FRANCE	LOUIS XIV	SPAIN	CHARLES II to 1700	PRUSSIA	FREDERICK I
			PHILIP V		
RUSSIA	PETER THE GREAT from 1689	SWEDEN	CHARLES XII from 1697		

1 William and Mary, 1689-1694 — William and Mary were crowned as joint sovereigns of Great Britain and Ireland. The Declaration of Right had stated that no money could be forced from the subject by the sovereign without the consent of Parliament. That

no army must be kept up in time of peace, that the nation has a right to choose its own representatives, that these representatives have a right to perfect freedom of debate, that justice must be pure and Parliaments frequent, and to these statements the two sovereigns gave their hearty and unfeigned assent. The Convention which offered them the crown changed itself into a Parliament, and, in the same way, the Declaration of Right was made into a statute, and called the Bill of Rights. It fixed the yearly revenue at £1,200,000, and it began the new principle of Appropriation of Supplies. Up to this time, money voted to the king as supplies could be employed by him as he pleased. But, from this time, a fixed sum (in William's case it was £700,000) was allotted to the support of the Crown, and the other sums were kept under the control of Parliament and applied to specified purposes. This fixed sum for the Crown went and still goes by the name of the Civil List. Parliament thus became the supreme power in the State.

(i) From childhood, William had been brought up in the stern school of adversity. He had been early left fatherless, and in his boyhood and youth he was without friends—was, in fact, always surrounded by enemies. He was weak and sickly from his cradle, he was consumptive, he was attacked by asthma when he grew up, and, "the dregs of the small pox falling on his lungs, he had a constant cough." He grew up among persons who disliked and hated him, silent, wary, self-involved, solemn, serious, cold, and even repulsive in his manners. Though master of seven languages, he "spoke little and very slowly, and most commonly with a disgusting dryness." But he had bright sparkling eyes, a passionate temper which was under perfect control, a courage which rose in coolness and fixedness with difficulty and disaster, and the highest ability in State business. When he came under fire, a strange light flashed from his eyes, and, when others were full of terror and dismay, his presence of mind increased with every addition to the danger and the confusion, and even his stiff manners were seen to change to ease and grace and gaiety.

(ii) The French ambassador wrote to his master Louis XIV., "He is honourable in all he does, and his conduct is sincere." He had a great power of concealing and governing his passion, and he was the most enduring, persevering, and patient of men.

(iii) William's one idea from his youth up had been to break the dreaded power of Louis XIV., and his new power in England was valued by him chiefly as a means to that end. It was far from being an easy task. At the end of the seventeenth century, France was the wealthiest power in Europe. The annual income of the French crown was double the income of England, and Louis used to remark that it was "the last son that must win." He had half a million of men under arms, a force such as the world had never before seen, and his navy numbered one hundred men-of-war. In spite of Louis's power and William's bodily weakness, the match was not very unequal.

(iv) The Bill of Rights was merely the Declaration of Right thrown into the form of a statute, with the addition that William and Mary were declared King and Queen, and that persons in the line of succession who were Roman Catholics, or who should marry a Roman Catholic, were declared incapable of ascending the throne.

(v) All place holders, whether in Church or in State, were obliged to take an oath of allegiance and supremacy to the new sovereigns. Seven bishops (among them Archbishop Sancroft) and over three hundred of the clergy declined, and this body became known, during this and the two following reigns, as Non Jurors. Some of these men thought that under no circumstances could a rightful sovereign be deposed, others, who were Jacobites, were sincerely attached to the House of Stuart.

2. Ireland.—Tyrconnel, the Lord-Deputy of Ireland for James, had always advocated the policy of holding Ireland as a separate kingdom, with the help of Louis XIV. This absurd idea he soon had an opportunity of carrying out. The two parties which faced each other in Ireland were the Roman Catholic Irishry and the Protestant Englishry. The Irishry consisted of the aboriginal Celts and the descendants of the Norman-English settlers, and they numbered about a million. The Protestant Englishry were the English and Scotch colonists, who numbered only two hundred thousand, but who held four-fifths of all the land, and were by far the richest and the most civilised portion of the inhabitants.—Tyrconnel, in the beginning of 1689, hoisted a flag on the walls of Dublin Castle with the legend, "Now or never!" The whole Irish race at once rose in answer. James, who had always regarded Ireland as a refuge in case of danger, came over from France, with money, arms, and officers given him by Louis, landed at Kinsale, and entered Dublin on the 24th of March. The houses were bright with flags and tapestry, flowers were strewed before him, and his horse walked upon green-leaved branches which were laid thick upon the streets. His first act was to call a Parliament of his adherents, and there was not among them a single Protestant. Their chief work was the sorry and futile task of passing a Bill of Attainder against nearly three thousand Protestants of name and fortune, probably "the hugest Bill of Attainder the world had ever seen."

(i) The most foolish thing done by King James in Ireland was the debasing of the coinage. He took "pots, pans, kneelers of doors, pieces of ordnance long past use, and turned them into coin. He thus created nominally a million "sterling, which was in reality worth only about £16,000. "A mortgage for a thousand pounds was cleared off by a bag of counters made of old kettles. The tradesmen of Dublin suffered terribly. A man could purchase goods to the amount of half a guinea, and

pay for them a coin worth only threepence. Some persons who refused the base money were arrested by troopers, thrown into dark dungeons, and threatened with hanging at their own doors.

(ii) The most foolish thing done by the Irish Parliament of 1689 was the passing of the "Great Act of Attainder." It sentenced to death nearly three thousand persons, among whom were half the peerage of Ireland. There was no inquiry as to their guilt. The utmost care was taken that the persons attainted should not know they were attainted till the day of grace was past. No one was allowed to see the list.

3 The Siege of Londonderry—The Englishry knew what to expect, and they flocked—the Cromwellians into Enniskillen and the Scotch into Londonderry—the only two towns held by their friends. "One Walker, a minister," induced the inhabitants of Londonderry not to surrender to the forces of King James, and the siege began. There was only a weak wall, manned by about twenty old guns, and destitute even of a ditch, there were only provisions for ten days, and the supply of ammunition was very small. King James bombarded the city for nine days, the besieged replied by desperate sallies, in which many of the Irish troops were cut off, and the siege had to be changed into a blockade. James broke into a rage. "If my army had been English," he said, "they would have brought me the town, stone by stone, by this time." The shot of the besieged gave out, and they covered brickbats with lead and fired them at the Irish army. Marshal Rosen, who commanded for James, went so far as to collect—as an extreme measure—old men, young mothers with infants, children, and cripples, who could not flee, and drove them at the point of the bayonet beneath the walls of Londonderry, where they lay starving for three days, but the besieged erected a gallows, and sent word to Rosen that, if these poor people were not allowed to go away, they would hang every prisoner in their hands. The Protestants of Londonderry died of hunger in the streets, and of the fever which comes of hunger, but no man dared to breathe a syllable of the word *surrender*. They ate the flesh of horses and of dogs, they ate rats and mice, they chewed hides and old shoes, and the provisions in the town had come down to nine lean horses, not much more than bones, and a pint of meal per man. There was only one fat man in Londonderry, and he did not dare to show himself in the streets. The besieged had now only food for two days, and still the cry was "No surrender!" On the evening of the 30th of July, Mr Walker preached in the Cathedral, and ex-

horted his hearers to waiting and to patience, for that God would at last deliver them. An hour after the sermon, the hollow, staring, hungry eyes of the inhabitants descried a movement in Lough Foyle. It was a frigate and two vessels laden with provisions. A boom had been hung across the river to prevent the passage of ships, but they easily broke through, and the town was saved. The lighting of bonfires, the ringing of bells, and the eating of unusual dinners marked the joy of the inhabitants—a joy not unmixed with thankfulness to God. When the morning dawned, there was nothing left of the besiegers but the smouldering fires of their deserted camp. On the very same day, Colonel Wolseley, an ancestor of the present Lord Wolseley, led out the garrison of Enniskillen, and defeated a body of Irish troops at Newton Butler.

{ (i) The siege had lasted three months

(ii) Eight thousand of the besiegers fell in the struggle

4 The Battle of the Boyne—In the summer of 1690, William himself crossed over to Ireland. Louis immediately seized the opportunity to make an attempt at invasion, in concert with the Jacobites, and Englishmen, standing upon the high downs of Beachy Head, saw

Battle of
Beachy
Head
1690

an English Admiral—Herbert, Earl of Torrington—beaten back by the French, and driven to seek refuge in the estuary of the Thames—But, on the 1st of July 1690, William obtained a decisive victory over the united French and Irish armies at the river Boyne. This stream divides the counties of Louth and Meath, and flows into the sea near Drogheda. The army of James was posted on the river, for the purpose of holding the road from Belfast to the capital. When William caught sight of the hostile army, his eyes lightened, he laughed a great laugh, and exclaimed, “I am glad to see you, gentlemen, and, if you escape me now, the fault will be mine.” He had his breakfast spread upon the grass near the river, and the enemy brought down two field-pieces, fired, grazed his right shoulder, and tore his buff coat. The Jacobites spread a rumour that he was killed, but William had his wound dressed, took his sword in his left hand, and gave the order to cross James, on his side, stayed in the rear of his army in safety beside a church on a hill.—The Irish infantry soon broke, but the cavalry made a tough and gallant defence, and Marshal Schomberg, who

commanded the English centre, fell, his skull cloven by a sabre. With the coming up of William himself at the head of the left wing, the whole Jacobite army gave way, and James, seeing all was lost, mounted his horse, galloped to Kinsale, and took ship for France. The faint-heartedness of this Stuart moved even his own followers to scorn. "Change kings with us," said a brave Irish officer, "and we will fight you again." The routed army retreated within the walls of Limerick, but the French leader refused to join them there. "Do you call these ramparts?" he said, "you could batter them down with roasted apples."

Battle of
the Boyne
1690.

(i) "One of the most remarkable peculiarities of this man," says Lord Macaulay, "his mind ordinarily so saturnine and reserved, was that danger acted on him like wine, opened his heart, loosened his tongue, and took away all appearance of constraint from his manner."

(ii) This was the Admiral Herbert who had carried the famous letter to William of Orange. His cowardice gave the French Admiral, Tourville, the command of the English Channel. Tourville tried in vain to get English sailors to fight for King James, and he landed and burned Telghmouth. Torrington was dismissed from the service by William, and his post was given to Admiral Russell.

5 Reduction of Ireland—Next year, 1691, saw the complete reduction of Ireland by Ginkell and John Churchill, now Earl of Marlborough. Ginkell gained the battle of Aghrim, in which the brave French general, St Ruth, fell mortally wounded. Limerick was the last stronghold of the Irish Jacobites, but its gallant defender, Patrick Sarsfield, had at length to surrender. By the capitulation of Limerick, he was allowed to go abroad, and he, with many of his followers, entered the French service. His example was followed by many of the bravest and best of the Roman Catholics, who saw all chance of rising in their own country taken from them.

6 The War with France—In 1692 William was absent on the Continent, and Louis XIV planned another invasion. Admiral Tourville was to convoy a fleet of transports, and he expected that the English captains would be in favour of King James and make no serious resistance. Admiral Russell, however, visited the ships of the fleet, and told the common sailors to pitch overboard any captain "who should play false," and Admiral Carter, when he fell mortally wounded, cried to his captain to "fight the ship as long as she can swim." The

Battle of
Cape La
Hogue
1692

French were terribly beaten, the Royal Sun, the finest vessel of that day, and the pride of the French navy, was burnt to the water's edge, the other vessels fled into the bay of La Hogue, where Admiral Rooke burnt them under the very eyes of the half-hearted James

(i) Marlborough was in this year, 1692, dismissed from all his offices. There was a feeling among many of the chief men in the government that William might not succeed in holding the throne, and some, chief among them Marlborough, thought it as well not to break entirely with James. He went further. He induced Anne to write to her father a letter expressing deep contrition for breach of duty to him, and he himself held out to James hopes of restoring him by a vote of Parliament, and by the support of the English army, which had a cordial hatred of the Dutch.

(ii) James II prepared for this invasion by one of his usual clumsy expedients,—a proclamation in which he was frank enough to state what persons and parties he intended to punish, when once he got back to his throne. Every person who had had anything to do with the trial or punishment of a Jacobite—every office holder who did not immediately declare for King James as soon as he heard of his landing—all the poor fishermen who at Rochester had called the king “Old Hatchet-face”—all these, and more, to the number of hundreds of thousands, were to be punished. If any were pardoned, they would be pardoned “under the Great Seal,” that is to say, they would have to buy their pardons, and “there was not a priest in the royal household who would not make his fortune. Queen Mary (her husband was on the Continent at this time) was clever enough to reprint this precious proclamation, and to circulate it widely, along with some shrewd remarks—so that every one might see what he had to expect from James.

(iii) Admiral Russell, who was personally most favourable to James, visited every ship in his fleet, mustered and spoke himself to all the crews. “If your commanders play false,” he said, “overboard with them, and myself the first, if you like!”

(iv) The victory of La Hogue “crushed the existence of France as a naval power.”

(v) This war was for us the beginning of our National Debt. In 1692, the year of La Hogue, a land tax was imposed, which varied from £10 for a peer to 4s for a farmer, but it did not bring in enough. The Government had therefore to raise a loan, and this was the first loan—the first of a long series—raised by the British Government. The first loan, in 1693, was only one million, but, at the present day, in spite of serious attempts to cut down the debt, it amounts to £700,000,000.

7 Scotland.—The Scottish Convention, which met in Edinburgh, turned itself, like its English counterpart, into a Parliament, and this Parliament lasted through the whole of the reign.—With James fell also the Episcopal Church in Scotland, and the clergy and curates were driven out of their houses, “rabbed,” insulted, and abused, but without bloodshed—proceedings which could not be stopped, as there was not a single regiment north of the Tweed.

It was not, however, until 1690 that the Presbyterian Church was re-established by law in Scotland —The most active agent on the side of James was Graham of Claverhouse, Viscount Dundee, and he now called upon the Highland clans to follow his flag General Mackay, a good but somewhat slow soldier, was sent against him with three regiments The two armies met near Killiecrankie The English army was allowed to march up the narrow pass, and to defile into a small open valley—"where not more than three men could walk abreast"—which has the river Garry on one side and a circle of low hills on the other These hills were held by the Highlanders, and here the battle began It began with ^{Battle of} ~~Killiecrankie~~ an interchange of musket shots, which went on for several ^{1689.} hours At last Dundee gave the word for close action, and immediately a cloud of Highlanders, throwing down their muskets, swept—shoeless and plaidless—down into the plain, rending the air with the fearful yell of the slogan,¹ urged to maddest combat by the unceasing play and shriek of the bagpipe, and put the "red-coats" to the sword, to rout, and to flight The Garry was choked with dead bodies, a few soldiers fled headlong down the narrow pass, but the Jacobite leader, while waving his arm to encourage his men, was struck in the part thus exposed by the opening of his cuirass, reeled, fell from his horse, and "word spake never more"—This was in 1689 There were other slight engagements, at Dunkeld and elsewhere, but the Civil War in Scotland ended in 1690 with the defeat, in Strathspey, of an officer named Buchan, who had been sent over to take command of the clans

(i) "The violence of revolutions is generally proportioned to the degree of the maladministration which has produced them It is therefore not strange that the Government of Scotland, having been during many years far more oppressive and corrupt than the Government of England, should have fallen with a far heavier ruin The movement against the last king of the House of Stuart was in England conservative, in Scotland destructive The heads and hands of the martyred Whigs were taken down from the gates of Edinburgh, carried in procession by great multitudes to the cemeteries, and laid in the earth with solemn respect"—MACAULAY

(ii) "The Cameronians at Dunkeld had good reason to be joyful and thankful for they had finished the war" "The victorious army of Dundee melted away like a snow drift.

8 The Massacre of Glencoe —To keep the west in order, General

Mackay built a fortress in the west of Inverness-shire, which he called Fort Wilham, in honour of the king—But the reduction of the Highlanders was not yet effected, and it was clear to the advisers of William that the chiefs might break out again at any time, if only they could find a right leader. A serious attempt had therefore to be made for the pacification of the Highlands. If the clans were not to be cowed, it was hoped they might at least be bought into submission. Accordingly, the sum of £15,000 was intrusted for distribution to the then Earl of Breadalbane, who is described by a personal acquaintance as “cunning as a fox, wise as a serpent, but as slippery as an eel.” The clans submitted, with the exception of the small clan of Macdonald of Glencoe, a wild and melancholy pass in the north-west of Argyllshire, “the very Valley of the Shadow of Death.” M’Ian, the chief of this small clan, in the pride of his heart, put off submission till the very last day—the 31st of December 1691, and on that day he presented himself to Colonel Hill, who commanded at Fort William. But Hill had no power to administer the oaths. M’Ian was recommended to go on to Inveraray, where there was a magistrate, and, now thoroughly alarmed, he made his way over mountain paths deep in snow, and reached that town only after a hard struggle of six days. It was past the day of submission, and the enemies of the Highlanders—among whom the greatest was the Secretary for Scotland, Sir John Dalrymple, Master of Stair—were very glad of it. Stair wrote an order to root out that “damnable
 Massacre of sept,” and William signed it. The officer appointed to
 Glencoe carry out the order was to secure all avenues and outlets,
 1692 “so that the old fox, nor none of his cubs, get away,” and was also to take care that “the Government be not troubled with prisoners”¹. Accordingly, a party of soldiers, commanded by Captain Campbell of Glenlyon, appeared in the glen, gave themselves out for friends, were heartily welcomed, played cards and drank toddy with their victims, and lived very comfortably with them for a fortnight. On the night of the 12th of February, Captain Campbell had two of M’Ian’s sons to supper with him, and in the cold dark of the winter morning of the 13th, at five o’clock, the soldiers arose, turned upon their hosts, and put them to death with sword and with musket. They killed old M’Ian as he stood at his dressing-table, they shot

¹ That is no one was to be spared.

down the young men as they were sitting round the fire, they butchered a child of twelve, and they put the close to their work by stabbing an old man of eighty. Thirty-eight were put to death, the rest escaped to the snow-clad mountains to perish of cold and hunger.

(i) "The Master of Stair (the Secretary for Scotland) seems to have proposed to himself a truly great and good end, the pacification and civilisation of the Highlands." "The Master of Stair was only dismissed from office by the king. The Parliament of Scotland did not accuse 'the original cause of the unhappy business' as being participant in what they voted to be a murder."

Master is a title borne by the eldest sons of some Scottish barons. The Master of Stair was the eldest son of Viscount Stair, President of the Court of Session.
Sept=clan. *Tribe* is the genus, *sept* the species.

(ii) The Massacre of Glencoe has been celebrated in verse by Sir Walter Scott. The following is one stanza —

"The hand that mingled in the meal, —
At midnight drew the felon steel,
And gave the host's kind breast to feel
Meed for his hospitality
The friendly hearth that warmed that hand,
At midnight armed it with the brand,
That bade destruction's flames expand
Their red and fearful blazonry."

9 William on the Continent — William was as deeply interested in breaking the power of Louis, as in settling the affairs of England and Great Britain. For the former purpose, it was his habit to spend the summer on the Continent, and, out of his thirteen years on the throne of England, eleven years were spent in war. In 1692 William was defeated at Steinkirk, and a discontented Parliament followed this defeat. The year after, he met another defeat, still more severe, at Landen, where the bloodiest and most stubborn battle of the war was fought. Still William never lost heart. His Dutch obstinacy was proof against every disaster. And he was not always seconded by the English Parliament or the English nation. At length, in the year 1695, he captured the strong fortress of Namur, in spite of a powerful French force within, and the presence of a very large French army without. This was the turning-point in his fortunes abroad. William, on his return to England, made a progress through the country, and a Parliament was returned with a large majority in favour of the war and of the Whig policy. Parliament was eager to assist King William in his

Fall of
Namur
1695

struggle against Louis, but there was little money in the country
 { The Treaty At length, however, the war was brought to a fortunate
 of Ryswick conclusion by the Treaty of Ryswick, in the year 1697
 1697 The country was overjoyed, and the king made a
 triumphal entry into London

(i) Steinkirk (also written, *Steen Kerke*) is a small village north east of Mons

(ii) Landen lies between Tirlemont and Liège, just where the high hilly country of Belgium (as it is now called) dips down into the plain. It was an important military position, and this can be seen from the fact that five railways now converge upon it. (The Battle of Landen is called *Neerwinden* by the French)

(iii) Namur is a fortified town of great artificial and natural strength—the latter from its position at the confluence of the Meuse and the Sambre

(iv) Ryswick is a small town, in what is now called Holland, to the south of the Hague. One of the terms of the Treaty was that the Pretender should be expelled from France

10 The Darien Scheme —William Paterson, a clever, sanguine, and enterprising Scotchman, whose best title to fame is that he founded the Bank of England, started another scheme, which was to make all Scotland wealthy and happy for ever after. He had studied with great care the map of the world, and it struck him that the Isthmus of Darien (or Panamá) was the true commercial centre of the globe, and that a commercial colony established there would command the trade of the Atlantic and Pacific Oceans, and draw supplies for the good of Scotland from the great continents of Asia, Africa, and the two Americas. A company to carry out this magnificent scheme was established. In six months the sum of four hundred thousand pounds was subscribed, every Scotchman who had £5 to spare rushed to invest it in the grand Darien scheme, and half the capital of what was then a very poor little country was sunk in it. People who had bought shares went to bed and dreamed all night of gold and ruby and copper mines, and a trade “advancing by leaps and bounds.” “Many,” says Sir Walter Scott, “subscribed their all, maidens threw in their portions, and widows whatever sums they could raise upon their dower, to be repaid a hundredfold by the golden shower which was to descend upon the subscribers.” On the 26th of July 1698, three vessels sailed from Scotland with twelve hundred Scotchmen on board, and “the whole city of Edinburgh poured down upon Leith to see the colony depart, amidst the tears and prayers and praises

The Darien
 Scheme
 1698

of relations and friends.' They were going to make their own fortunes and the fortunes of everybody else, Edinburgh would rival London, and Scotland would take its rightful place at the head of the commerce of the world. The Scottish Parliament had granted them a charter, which gave them a monopoly of trade with Asia, Africa, and the two Americas' for thirty-one years, with leave to import all goods duty free, except sugar and tobacco. The expedition reached Darien in safety, and built a town and a fort, which they called New Edinburgh and New St. Andrews, after the new and the old capital of Scotland.

11. Failure of the Darien Scheme —But England was against them, and Holland was against them, the great East India Company looked upon them as poachers, and Spain regarded them as no better than pirates or filibusters. They had an insufficient supply of provisions, and the governor of the English colonies in North America refused to let them have any more, the climate was pestilential, and hunger and fever soon thinned their ranks, and left the survivors lean and pale and worn out. They deserted their colony, and sailed for New York. But, before the news could reach Scotland, another body of thirteen hundred emigrants had set sail, only to find the settlement a silent desert, and to be themselves driven out by Spanish men-of-war —The Scottish people were deeply mortified and terribly enraged by the failure of the great scheme in which they had embarked their hopes, their hearts, and their money, and they declared, that "those who perished for want of provisions were as much murdered by King William's Government as if they had been shot in the snows of Glencoe." William pointed out that the charter had been granted without his knowledge when he was absent in Holland, and that it would be better for both countries if they were united and possessed one parliament.

Failure of
the Darien
Scheme
1699.

12 William at Home —William had a very difficult task in the government of the three kingdoms, and, had it not been for the generous aid which he received from his wife, it would have been an impossible one. He had, practically, received his crown from the hands of the Whigs but he wished to be king of the whole nation, and not of a party. Again, his long struggle with Louis of France obliged him

to be his own minister of foreign affairs, while his view of the duties and the responsibilities of a king were lofty and serious, and his strong feelings regarding his position rather inclined him to the side of the Tories. He early learned, moreover, that he could not trust the prominent men in the country. Men like Marlborough and Russell were known by William to be in correspondence with James, so that they might not lose any chance should a change in the succession take place. It was for this that, in 1692, Marlborough was dismissed from all the offices he held. At first it was thought it would be a good thing to have a strong government composed of able members of both parties, but this plan was found not to work. In 1695 the Duke of Leeds (formerly Marquis of Caermarthen and Lord Danby) left the government, which from that time became purely Whig in character and composition. After the death of Mary in 1694, William received an accession of political strength in the friendship of the Duke of Marlborough. This astute person saw that her sister Anne was now certain to succeed, Anne was completely under the power of Marlborough's wife, and thus he saw his way clear before him to the highest offices in the Army and in the State. Nay, more, he saw his way to becoming the practical ruler of England, the head of the coalition against Louis, and the arbiter of the fortunes of Europe. In the year 1698, the Parliament elected was strongly Tory in character, it reduced the standing army to ten thousand men, and sent William's Dutch Guards back to their own country, and, in 1700, William was obliged to form a Tory Government, the most distinguished members of which were Lord Rochester and Lord Godolphin. In this year, also, the little Duke of Gloucester, Anne's son, and heir to the throne, died, and it became necessary to provide for the Protestant Succession. Parliament, with the sanction of William, had no difficulty, in 1701, in passing the Act of Settlement, by which the crown was conferred on the Electress Sophia, wife of the Elector of Hanover, and grand-daughter of James I. When, in this year of 1701, James II died at St Germain's, Louis XIV at once recognised his son as rightful King of England, Scotland, and Ireland. This set the nation in a flame, and Tory vied with Whig in showing their attachment to William and the Protestant cause. But the Whigs were, of course, in the majority. William saw his opportunity, dissolved Parliament, got a new Parliament together

composed chiefly of Whigs, dismissed his Tory Cabinet, and declared war against Louis. England was arming, Europe was arming; when the accident to William put an end at once to his life and to his hopes of curbing the power of France.

(i) The first *united* ministry in the history of the English Parliament was formed in 1696. It was Whig.

(ii) The Tories in the Parliament of 1699 did not at all share William's dread of the power of France. The country gentlemen had, moreover, been heavily taxed, and the officers in the English army were extremely jealous of the Dutch and of the favour shown to them by William.

(iii) This son was called by his French friends *Le Prétendant*—that is, the Claimant, but the Whigs of the day very cleverly translated it by the term *Pretender*, and so it remained. England was indignant at the interference of a foreign king with the succession to the throne.

(iv) By the Act of Settlement Parliament resumed its ancient English rights of electing the king. Like the Witenagemote, of which it was the legitimate successor, it passed over those heirs that were nearest in blood—because they were not Protestants, and conferred the crown on persons of much more distant relationship.

13 Death of William—A Parliament was called, which voted William £600,000, and advised him to make no peace with France until this personal affront—this impudent violation of the Peace of Ryswick—was fully atoned for. William was himself in the last stage of bodily feebleness, but no one could discern “one single mark of languor or decline.” He hunted once a week, though he was so weak that he had to be lifted on to his horse. One day he was hunting at Hampton Court—it was the 21st of February 1702—when his horse stumbled at a mole-hill and threw him. He broke his collar-bone, a fever supervened, and he never rose from his bed. He died on the 8th of March. From that day the usual toast of the Jacobites was “to the little gentleman in black velvet” who had brought about the death of William III.

14 The Work of Parliament—The Convention, which had been called together in the beginning of 1689, resolved itself into a Parliament, without any appeal to the Country. It imposed a new oath of Allegiance and Supremacy on all persons who held office either in church or state, and those among the clergy whose consciences would not permit them to swear allegiance to a Parliament-made king, left the Church and became generally known as Non-jurors.

This Convention-Parliament also passed the Mutiny Act and the Toleration Act. But its greatest achievement was the transformation of the Declaration of Right into the Bill of Rights. William's Second Parliament met in 1690, and tried, but without success, to pass the Abjuration Bill. In 1693 the National Debt was originated by Montague, the Chancellor of the Exchequer, and this debt went on growing until, by the end of William's reign, it had reached the amount of £12,000,000.—In 1694 Parliament was able to pass the Triennial Act, though it had to overcome the disinclination of William himself, who always feared these changes of the House of Commons.—In 1697 Parliament reduced the standing army of the country to 10,000 men.—The Parliament of 1701 felt it necessary, in consequence of the death in the previous year of the little Duke of Gloucester—the son and heir of the Princess Anne—to pass an Act of Settlement, or "Succession Act," by which the Crown, after Anne's death, was to pass to the Electress Sophia and her children, if they were Protestants.—The last Parliament of William met in the end of 1701, but it had not much time to do any work. It passed a Bill of Attainder against the Old Pretender, and it imposed an oath to uphold the Act of Settlement, or the "Protestant Succession," on all persons holding office either in church or state.

(i) The Mutiny Act is passed every year. If it were not renewed, the Army would be *ipso facto* dissolved. The "supply" for the Army is also voted from year to year, so that, though there is a standing Army, its continued existence depends not on the Sovereign, but on the will of Parliament.

(ii) The Toleration Act gave complete freedom of worship to Nonconformists, but it did not allow them to hold office of any kind.

(iii) The Abjuration Bill, which did not pass, called upon all office holders to abjure allegiance to James. But William's health was delicate, Louis XIV was very powerful, James II was always on the watch, and no one knew what might happen. If James II. came back, a person who had abjured his allegiance would probably find it go hard with him.

(iv) The National Debt owes its origin to William's precarious tenure of the Crown. Had he been firmly seated he could, like other Kings of England, have borrowed money on his own security. This was impossible. Hence Montague borrowed the money on the security of the Government, and the money was lent by members of the nation to the Nation as a whole, as an organic body. The National Debt, at the Peace of Paris in 1815, was £861,000,000. It is now (1890) £705,000,000.

(v) The Triennial Act had two sides. (a) No Parliament was to last more than three years. (b) The country not to be without a Parliament for more than three years.

(vi) The reduction of the army to 10,000 men was due to the Peace of Ryswick, which removed all danger of an invasion of England by Louis XIV

(vii) The Act of Settlement contained the following important clauses (a) the crown to go to the Electress Sophia and her heirs, (b) the Sovereign to be a Protestant and not to leave the kingdom (c) no intervention by war in favour of the foreign possessions of the Sovereign, (d) foreigners not to receive grants or hold offices, (e) ministers to be responsible for the acts of the Sovereign, and not to be protected from impeachment by pardon "under the Great Seal", (f) judges to be appointed for life

(viii) One of the most important acts of William's Parliaments was a thing they did not do. They refused to renew the Act for licensing books and printed matter, which expired in 1695, and from this date all printing was absolutely free

15 Great Men.—In home politics, the three most distinguished advisers of William were George Savile, Marquis of Halifax, Lord Danby, who was created Duke of Leeds, and Lord Godolphin. For foreign affairs William was his own minister. In war by far the greatest name is again that of King William himself. In finance, Charles Montague (who at the end of the reign was created Earl of Halifax) showed courage and originality, and his financial plans were supported by the great mathematician Sir Isaac Newton, then Master of the Mint, and by the great philosopher, John Locke.—In Ireland, the Earl of Tyrconnel's was the most prominent name, in Scotland, that of Viscount Dundee.—Of William's private friends and trusted advisers, the most distinguished was Bentinck, whom William made Earl of Portland.

16 Social Facts—There are in history two, and perhaps only two, instances of an army being absorbed, after its work was done, in the ranks of peaceable and hard-working citizens, the soldiers returning once more to their occupations as farmers, labourers, shopkeepers, artisans. These two instances are those of the Cromwellian Army in 1660—the year of the Restoration, and of the Army of the United States, after the Civil War of 1861-65. Both of these were citizen armies, the combatants in them were not hired soldiers, they fought for what they believed to be a great and a just cause. But, when an army of hired soldiers is disbanded, the case is very different, the old soldiers who have made fighting the profession of their lives, cannot readily go back to the pursuits and the habits of peace, and many of them, indeed, cannot find work if

they wished to find it Hence they become highway robbers, marauders, footpads, and swell the ranks of the classes who live by plunder, disorder, and lawlessness This was very greatly the case after the peace of Ryswick in 1697, and the government of the time was too poor and too weak to grapple with the evil The exchequer had been emptied by the expenditure in the war with France, and trade was not in a flourishing condition The new coinage helped to put trade on a sounder footing, though the loss on the old and debased coins was made good by an evil tax upon houses and windows —Two excellent societies were founded during this reign—the Society for Promoting Christian Knowledge (the “S P C K”), and the Society for the Propagation of the Gospel in Foreign Parts, both of them in the year 1698—the year after the peace of Ryswick.

(i) “The peace had, all over Europe, and nowhere more than in England, turned crowds of old soldiers into marauders’ Carriages were attacked even in Hyde Park, which, however, at that time lay well in the country A band of robbers built huts for themselves in Epping Forest and waylaid travellers and passers by

(ii) The coinage had been so much clipped (the edges were not milled, as now, but quite raw) that shopkeepers refused to take it except by weight. The working classes received their pay in these coins, “by rate,” but they had to pay by weight for the provisions they bought, and in this way they sometimes lost a third, or even a half of their wages

PLAN OF DATES
SEVENTEENTH CENTURY

1600 India Company lves a Charter	1601 Execntion of Essex Abolition of Monopolies First regular Poor Law	1602	1603 Death of Elizabeth. JAMES I	1604 Hampton Cou ference
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1610			The Mayf	
1611 planted by English Scottish settlers	1612 Death of Salisbury Carr chief favourite Episcopacy established in Scotland	1613	1621 Impeachment of Bacon Protest of House of Com mons James tears the Protest out of the Journals	Pym,
1614	1615	1616 Raleigh released from the Tower Valliers chief favourite	1624 Monopolies finally do clared illegal	D Charl A
1617 Lord Chancellor	1618 Execution of Raleigh.	1619	1627 War with France	PET Assas Went

1640 The Scots invade England Strafford impeached			Battle of	
1641 lennial Act tion of Strafford of Star Chamber etc RAND REMON STRANCE	1642 FIRST CIVIL WAR. Battle of Edgehill	1643 Chalgrove Field Battle of Newbury (1st)	1651 Battle of Worcester (Sep 3)	"Settl 14
1644 RSTON MOOR of Newbury (2d)	1645 Execution of Land. New Model Battle of Naseby	1646	1654	
1647 g given up by the Scots	1648 SECOND CIVIL WAR. Battle of Preston.	1649 Execution of Charles I. COMMONWEALTH Cromwell in Ireland.	1657 The Throno offered to Cromwell in the Humble Petition and Advice	Dea RICH

Secret Treaty of Dover				
1671 'enures converted upon freeholds"	1672 Declaration of Indulgence	1673 The Test Act	1681	The Du making Englan
1674	1675 St. Pauls commenced	1676	1684	Deaf J Battle
1677	1678 Secret Treaty with Franco Oates's Popish Plot.	1679 Habeas Corpus Act	1686 First Declaration of In dulgence	Second th of

New Plymouth		1630 Stratford (Wentworth) and the King's advisers.		
thrown over	1623	1631 John Drayden born	1632 John Locke born	1633 Wentworth Lord of Ireland Land Archbishop Terbury
ness of Henric's ance	1626 Buckingham impeached	1634 Ship-money levied.	1635 Ship-money levied on land towns and counties	1636
RIGHT Puckling the king	1629 10 Parliament forced ten years. Sir John Eliot sent to the Tower	1637 John Hampden refuses to pay ship-money	1638 Second Covenant in Scot land	1639 Pacification of I
September 20		1660 Monck declares for a new Parliament. CHARLES II		
of Ireland War	1653 Instrument of Govern ment OLIVER CROMWELL Lord Protector	1661 Corporation Act Episcopacy restored in Scotland	1662 Act of Uniformity	1663 Daniel Defoe
	1656	1664 Conventicle Act	1665 Plague of London Five Mile Act	1666 Fire of Lon
Cromwell CROMWELL or	1659 Restoration of the Long Parliament	1667 The Dutch in the Medway	1668 The Triple Alliance	1669
		1690 Battle of the Boyne Second Flight of James		
Monmouth est through	1683 Fye House Plot London deprived of its Charter	1691	1692 Massacre of Glencoe Battle of Cape La Hogue Battle of Steinkirk	1693 The National De Battle of La
Charles II Edgemoor	1686 Camp at Hounslow	1694 Death of Mary Bank of England founded	1695 Taking of Namur	1696

SHORT CHRONOLOGY AND SUMMARY OF WILLIAM AND MARY'S REIGN

1689	(a) Accession of William and Mary (b) The Mutiny Act (c) War with France The Grand Alliance—England, Holland Spain the German Empire Austria. (d) Toleration Act (e) BILL OF RIGHTS	1694.	(a) Bank of England founded. (b) The Triennial Act (c) Death of Mary
1690	(a) Battle of Beachy Head. (b) Battle of the Boyne (c) Flight of James	1695	Taking of Namur
1692	(a) Dismissal of Marlborough (b) Massacre of Glencoe (c) Battle of Cape La Hogue (d) Battle of Steinkirk.	1696	Coinage restored.
1693	The National Debt begins. Battle of Landen	1697	Peace of Ryswick.
		1698	First Partition Treaty
		1699	The Darien Scheme
		1700	(a) Second Partition Treaty (b) Death of the Duke of Gloucester
		1701	(a) THE ACT OF SETTLEMENT (b) Death of James II (c) Louis XIV recognises the "Old Pretender" as James the Third
		1702	Death of William.

IMPORTANT CONTEMPORARY EVENTS

1690	Calcutta founded.	ship carpentering at Dept- ford.
1697	(a) Visit of Peter the Great to England Lives in Orme Square, Bayswater Learns	(b) Charles XII., king of Sweden.
		1701. Frederick I., king of Prussia.

CHAPTER VII

ANNE

(THE LAST OF THE STUARTS)

Born 1665 Succeeded (at the age of 37) in 1702 Died 1714
Reigned 12 Years

ANNE STUART was the daughter of James, Duke of York, afterwards James II. Her mother was Anne Hyde, daughter of Edward Hyde, Earl of Clarendon, the author of the "History of the Rebellion, and Lord High Chancellor to Charles II. Her elder sister was MARY, wife of William of Orange, who had been Queen before her, and her half-brother was JAMES FRANCIS EDWARD, the Old Pretender, who was the youngest child of James II. Her right to the throne came from the Act of Settlement of 1701. Anne outlived all her nineteen children.

CONTEMPORARY SOVEREIGNS

LOUIS XIV of France	PHILIP V of Spain (Duke of Anjou),	} Rivals for the Spanish throne.
	Archduke CHARLES of Austria,	

1 **Anne, 1702-1714**—Anne, the second daughter of James II, and the last of the Stuart family, now came to the throne. She was a quiet, good-natured, inoffensive woman. Her husband, Prince George of Denmark, was a nobody—of whom Charles II said, that he had tried him, drunk and sober, and had "found nothing in him." From the time Anne was a girl, she had been ruled by her favourite, Sarah Jennings, afterwards the handsome but domineering wife of John Churchill, Duke of Marlborough. These ladies were so fond of each other that they dropped the usual style of address, and the Queen wrote to her "Dear Sarah" under the signature of Anne Morley, while Sarah Churchill took the name of Mrs Freeman. Within a few days of Anne's accession to the throne, Marlborough was created Captain-General of Her Majesty's Forces.

The handsomest and best-bred man of his time, serene in temper, of the coolest and most undaunted courage, his character was nevertheless stained by avarice and by treachery. While in command of the English army, he would give information to the enemy for a sum of money, he deserted James II for William at the Revolution, and then intrigued with James again, he would sell his dearest friend for gold, and he loved no man but himself, and respected no cause but his own interest. His wife, his position, and his pocket were the only three things he cared for. He hated writing, and he never could spell—Anne chose her ministers chiefly from the Tory party, which she liked to call the "Church Party," and the chief among them were Lord Godolphin and the Duke of Marlborough, the latter, however, a Whig.

✓(i) The first administration of Queen Anne was a combined ministry of Whigs and Tories. Godolphin was Lord Treasurer, Nottingham Secretary of State, and Marlborough Commander in Chief.

✓(ii) Marlborough was the real ruler, and was practically not only Commander in Chief, but also Minister for Foreign Affairs.

2 The Two Periods of Anne's Reign.—The reign of this queen falls easily and naturally into two periods. The first was the period when the Duke of Marlborough was paramount in the Houses of Parliament, and his wife, the Duchess, in the royal closet. During this period Marlborough was the chief man in the kingdom, and his wife the chief woman at the Court. The second period began when Anne discarded the Duchess of Marlborough, and chose Mrs Masham to be her favourite. Mrs Masham being guided by Harley and St John, the chiefs of the Tory party. Mrs Masham was a cousin of Lady Churchill, but she was also a cousin of Harley. During the first period, Lady Churchill ruled, assisted by the queen, during the second, the affairs of the country were managed by Mrs Masham and Queen Anne and their friends. The queen's husband, Prince George of Denmark, cared for nothing but good eating and hunting. Most of the discussions and intrigues of the reign circled round the question of succession, the question whether the "Old Pretender" might not be allowed to come back to his own.

(i) "Anne had not a store of amity for more than one person at a time"—SWIFT

✓(ii) The "Old Pretender" was the son of James II, the "Young Pretender" was the grandson.

3 War of the Spanish Succession—This war was fought to determine who should succeed Charles II on the Spanish throne. But it had in reality much wider issues. England did not need to care whether the king of Spain were an Austrian or a Frenchman. But she did care that France should not become so powerful both by land and sea as to be able to force England to take the Stuarts back, she did care that France should not hold Spain, Naples, Sicily, Milan, the Spanish Netherlands, and the Indies, and thus become supreme on the Ocean as she was upon the Continent. And on these grounds, the Whig party followed up with ardour the continental policy of William III, and set itself steadily to break up the power of Louis XIV. And thus in time the struggles and expenditure of England gained for her a place in the front rank of European Powers, a place which she holds now, and which she never at any time lost. The Duke of Anjou, the son of the Dauphin of France, was now king of Spain under the title of Philip V, and we tried to drive him off the throne, and to place in his stead the Archduke Charles of Austria. William had, before his death, concluded a treaty with Holland and the Emperor of Germany, which was known as the Grand Alliance, to support the claim of the Archduke Charles of Austria to the Spanish crown, and to defeat the purposes of Louis.

4. Marlborough's Campaigns—War was formally declared in May 1702, and Marlborough entered upon that series of splendid victories which ranks him with the great captains of the world—with Caesar and Napoleon, with Wellington and Von Moltke. The fighting took place chiefly in the Spanish Netherlands, the part now called Belgium, long "the cockpit of Europe", but the first great battle was fought in Bavaria, as the French had made up their minds to attack Vienna. Marlborough marched in 1704 from Flanders up the Rhine right into the heart of Bavaria, and was ^{Blenheim} there joined by Prince Eugene of Savoy, the commander of 1704 the Imperial army. At Blenheim, on the Danube, he inflicted a terrible blow on the French and Bavarians, and took their leader, Marshal Tallard, prisoner. This victory saved Austria, it broke the spell of Louis's continued success, and Marlborough, who always took care to be well rewarded for his work, received a gift of the royal manor of Woodstock, upon which he afterwards built the

Palace of Blenheim This year also saw the capture by Admiral Rooke of Gibraltar, an almost impregnable fortress, which has ever since remained in the hands of Great Britain Ramillies 1706. Marlborough's next great battle was fought in 1706, when, at Ramillies, a village about thirty miles from Brussels, he defeated the French under Marshal Villeroi Oudenarde 1708 In 1708, Oudenarde, a place not far from Ghent, saw him for the third time brilliantly victorious over the French, who lost 15,000 men and more than one hundred bidders His last great victory was at Malplaquet, also in that part of the Netherlands now called Belgium, near Mons, but the French, though defeated, only lost 12,000 men, while the victors lost the enormous number of 24,000 This was in 1709 The war, which lasted for eleven years, lingered on till 1713, when it was brought to a close by the Peace of Utrecht Treaty of Utrecht 1713.

✓(i) The result of the Battle of Blenheim was to save Vienna, and to prevent the restoration of the line of James II "Throughout the rest of the war Louis fought only for self defence Blenheim had dissipated for ever his once proud visions of almost universal conquest" —CREASY

✓(ii) Gibraltar has been in the hands of England since 1704 It commands the water highway to India and the East.

✓(iii) The result of the Battle of Ramillies was to force the French to evacuate Brussels, Antwerp, and Ghent. "As Marlborough by the Battle of Blenheim rescued Germany, so it may be said of him that by the Battle of Ramillies he conquered Flanders" —STANHOPE.

✓(iv) Oudenarde gave Lille into the hands of the Allies

✓(v) The victory at Malplaquet gave the Allies Tournay and Mons, and opened the road to France

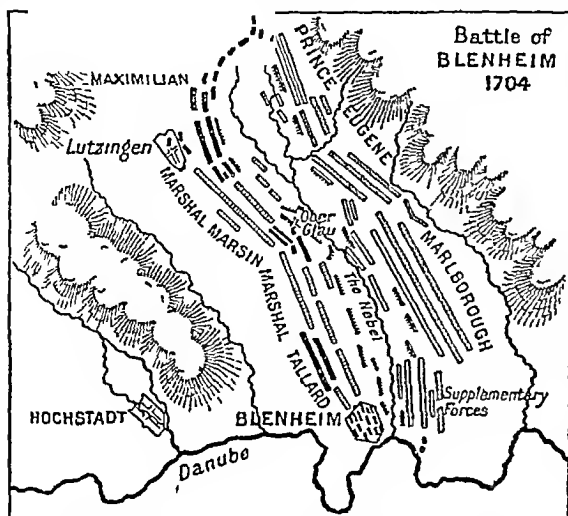
✓(vi) All this time the English Fleet was busy It captured Gibraltar and Minorca, secured to us the possession of Newfoundland, and took the French colony of Acadie (now Nova Scotia)

✓(vii) The total result of the campaigns was to drive the French out of the Nether lands, to destroy the prestige of Louis, and to drain the resources of France to the last louis d or

5 Blenheim —The Battle of Blenheim was fought to prevent the siege of Vienna, which was threatened by the French and Bavarian army from the west, and by the Hungarians from the east Marlborough, after a series of forced marches and skilful manœuvres, succeeded in throwing himself between the Franco-Bavarian army and

the Austrian capital. The French took up a strong position on hills and rising ground in the neighbourhood of the village of Blenheim,

on the Danube. In front of the French position ran the Nebel, a brook which flows through a series of marshes. The French leader, Marshal Tallard, mistakenly considered Blenheim the key of the position, fortified it with palisades,



and garrisoned it with a large body of infantry. Marlborough tried to take the village, but was beaten back. He then attacked the centre of the French line by bringing his troops across the marshes, and gaining for them a position on the rising ground beyond. After several attacks, he succeeded in piercing the French centre. A feigned attack which was steadily maintained against Blenheim kept a large number of the French troops busy, prevented their going to the relief of the centre, and thus neutralised their efforts in the battle. The Franco-Bavarian army fled in two bodies. Blenheim still held out, but now, surrounded by the English army, and played on by their artillery, the garrison was compelled to capitulate, and 11,000 men were made prisoners. The victory was a complete one, as, out of 60,000 men, the French and Bavarian generals could, after the battle, muster only 20,000 available troops. Marshal Tallard was himself a prisoner.

Blenheim
1704

(i) FORCES (a) French and Bavarian Army under Marshal Tallard and the Elector of Bavaria 60,000 men, 61 guns

(b) Allies under Marlborough and Prince Eugene 56,000 men, 51 guns

(ii) POSITION Both armies at right angles to the Danube on opposite sides of the Nebel, (a) The French, on rising ground, protected by the stream and marshes in front. Their line defined by three villages

Blenheim on the extreme right, Oberglau in the centre, Lutzingen on the left. All three villages strongly garrisoned by infantry. Connecting lines consist only of cavalry.

- (b) The Allies, commanded by Marlborough on the left, and Prince Eugene on the right.

(iii) MOVEMENTS (a) First Movement. Allied attack on Blenheim, led by Cutts "the Salamander" Repulsed.

- (b) Second Movement. General advance of the Allies across the Nebel and the swamps. Attack on Oberglau. Repulsed. Allied army almost cut in two.

- (c) Third Movement. Grand attack on French centre, which is only a long thin line of cavalry connecting the fortified villages. French defeated.

- (d) Fourth Movement. The left wing, commanded by the Bavarian Elector, outflanked by Marlborough, marching from the French centre. Driven from the field.

- (e) Fifth Movement. Blenheim surrounded and bombarded. The troops holding it surrender.

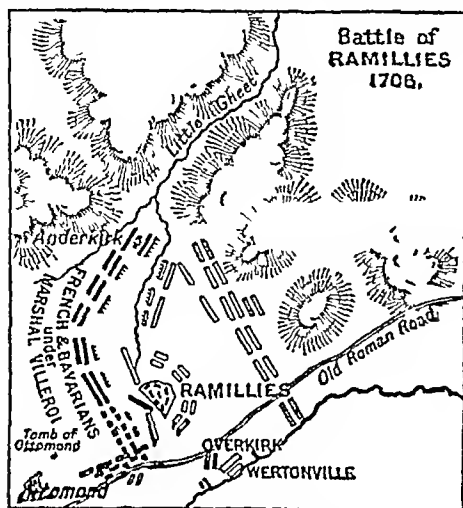
(iv) RESULTS (a) Total defeat of the French. Their losses are 14,000 killed and wounded, 13,000 prisoners—among them Tallard.

- (b) Allied losses 12,000 men.

6 Ramillies —The Battle of Ramillies was fought to prevent the fall of Namur. Marlborough's advance seemed to threaten this fortress, and Marshal Villeroy, in command of the French army, had received instructions to fight a battle for the purpose of saving the town. The French held a range of hills which ran in the form of a semi-circle round the sources of the Little Gheet. Their extreme right touched an old road called the "Road of Queen Brunchaud," and was covered by a lofty barrow known as the "Tomb of Ottomond." Their left lay on a village called Ander-Kirk. This part of the French position was protected by the river Little Gheet, and the marshes through which it flowed. Marlborough was so fortunate as to hold the inside of the circle—"a chord across the arc formed by the French lines,"—so that his troops had always a shorter line to march on than the enemy had. The Tomb of Ottomond was the key of the position. This taken, the whole of the enemy's line could be raked with shot. Marlborough made a feigned attack on Ander-Kirk, Villeroy and his generals galloped to that part of the field, he now flung his

Ramillies
1706

troops on Ramillies and the Tomb of Ottomond, and seized the high ground held by the French. The enemy retreated, the retreat became a rout, and the French were driven out of the Netherlands



(i) FORCES (a) French 62,000 men 130 guns

(b) Allies 60,000 men, 120 guns

(ii) POSITION (a) French drawn up on inner curve of a semi-circular slope, the village of Ramillies and the Tomb of Ottomond on their right, the village of Anderkirk on their left.

(b) Allies on a chord across the arc formed by the French line

(iii) MOVEMENTS (a) First Movement. A feigned attack on the extreme left of the French.

(b) Second Movement. An attack by Marlborough's strongest troops on the extreme right. The British are driven back.

(c) Third Movement. Reinforcements are brought up, and the British cavalry charge and sweep away the French right. Tomb of Ottomond occupied

(d) Fourth Movement. The village of Ramillies is stormed, and the French centre is driven back.

(e) Fifth Movement. Marlborough's troops advance from their new ground. French have no time to rally their right and centre. The French flee in rout all along the line.

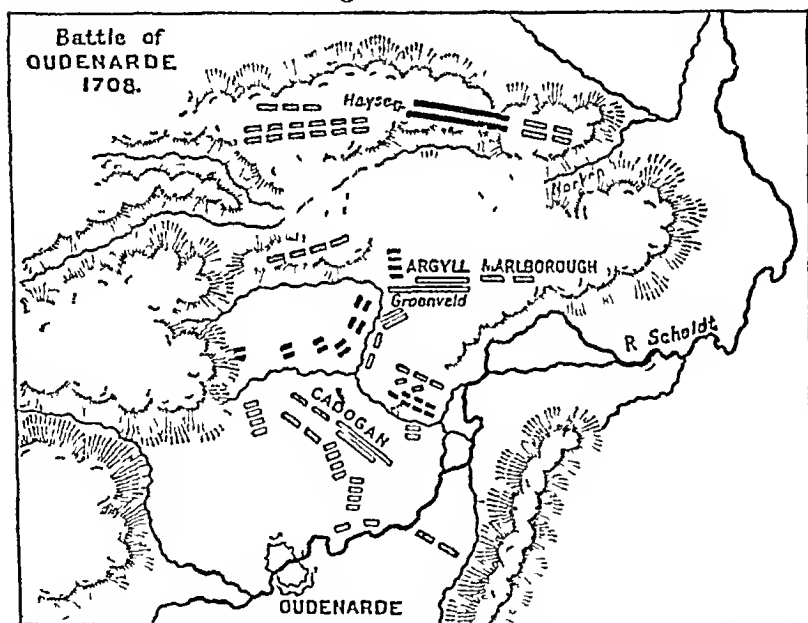
(f) Sixth Movement. The British horse pursue the fugitives for twenty five miles.

(iv) RESULTS French Killed and wounded 7000 prisoners 6000

Allies Killed and wounded 3600—All the Netherlands given up. Only Mons and Namur remain in the hands of the French.

7 Oudenarde—Marshal Vendôme, the new commander-in-chief of the French army, had taken the cities of Bruges and Ghent, and had made up his mind to capture also the town of Oudenarde, 2

fortress which lies higher up the Scheldt than Ghent, in order to secure his new acquisitions. Marlborough determined to fight a battle for the preservation of this stronghold. The French took up a position on a stretch of rising ground parallel with the Norken—a stream which flows into the Scheldt. Marlborough performed a circuit round the French army, slipped between it and France, and thus cut off its communications. Marshal Vendôme was in command, but the nominal commander-in-chief was the Duke of Burgundy, the heir to the French throne. The Duke of Burgundy ordered forward seven battalions, these were fallen on by General Cadogan and cut to pieces. Vendôme was anxious to remain behind the Norken, and to act on the defensive, knowing that the allies were wearied with their long marches. But the Duke insisted on



sending forward his troops across the Norken into the narrow valleys, the fields in which were surrounded by hedges, ditches, and walls. Here a set of fierce hand-to-hand combats followed, and generally in favour of the English. Marlborough, who Oudenarde 1708 commanded the left, now saw that the French right was completely unguarded, fell upon it, doubled it up, and almost totally annihilated it. Night came on, part of the French army broke through a gap in the hills, and the rest fell back upon Ghent.

(i) FORCES French, 85,000 men, Allies, 80,000

(ii) POSITION (a) The French on rising ground to the west of the Norren. The Allies in front of Oudenarde, and west of the Scheldt, facing the French, but with cross valleys between

(b) Marlborough with the left, Prince Eugene and Cadogan with the right.

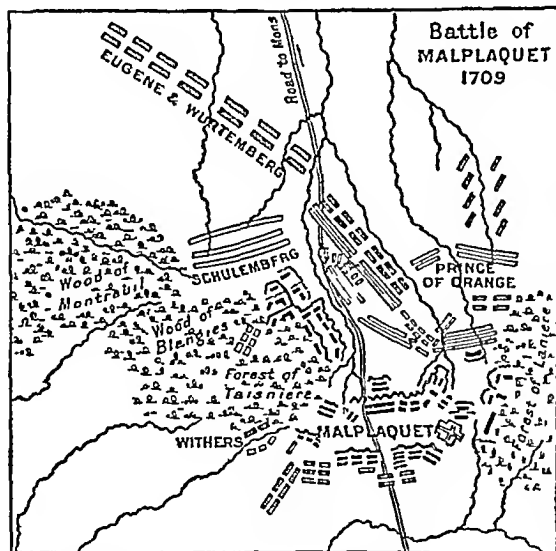
(iii) MOVEMENTS (a) First Movement. The Duke of Burgundy sends troops forward as far as Lyne—a village near Oudenarde Cadogan falls upon and routs them

(b) Second Movement. Burgundy orders forward the French right wing into the winding and narrow valleys Hand to hand battles The English cavalry on the heights to the right hold the French left in check.

(c) Third Movement. Marlborough orders Overkirk to sweep round the French right—which is far advanced beyond their centre—and to envelop it. Annihilation of French right wing

(iv) RESULTS Road open for the Allies to Paris

8 Malplaquet—Marlborough and Eugene had invaded Mons Marshal Villars, the only French marshal as yet undefeated, tried



to prevent the siege, but he was too late. He made haste, however, to raise the siege, if he possibly could. To the south of Mons lie masses of elevated ground, ranges of hills, broken country, covered with woods and forests. The only way to Mons from the south and west was by the

Tronée (= "Open Gap") between the forests of Taisniere on the west, and Lamere on the east. On one side of this gap stands

the village of Malplaquet, which Villars marched up to and seized. Here he fortified his position—which was protected by thick woods on both wings—in the strongest possible manner, by throwing up earthworks on the hills and along the sides of the woods. Marlborough, who had marched from Mons, wanted to attack at once, but Eugene thought it better to wait the coming of more troops. Thus another day was given to the French to strengthen their earthworks. The attack began on the right of the allies, and was led by General Withers. The pressure on the French left was so strong that Villars was obliged to send troops to the aid of the French in the Taisnières Forest, and thus he weakened his centre. Marlborough saw the blunder, hurled masses of troops on the entrenchments in the French centre, broke through them and seized the position. Marshal Villars was severely wounded, but Marshal Boufflers, a singularly able general, at once took command, ordered a retreat, and brought off his army in complete order. The only result to the English was that they held the field of battle. Malplaquet was the bloodiest and the hardest-fought fight in the whole war.

Malplaquet
1709.

(i) **LOCUS** French and Bavarians, 95,000 men, Allies, 73,000

(ii) **POSITION** (a) French on high ground between two dense woods, with Malplaquet on their right.

(b) The Allies at the foot of the different ranges of hills, and north of the Troucou

(iii) **MOVEMENTS** (a) First Movement Attack by Prince Eugene's corps on the wood of Taisnières on the French left Repulsed

(b) Second Movement General Withers attacks the French left Villars sends up troops to its assistance.

(c) Third Movement Prince of Orange attacks French right, is driven back with great loss

(d) Fourth Movement Marlborough, seeing French centre weakened, orders Lord Orkney to attack it Orkney breaks the centre, and establishes a battery of artillery there

(e) Fifth Movement Final attack on right and left wings, defeat of the French at both

(iv) **RESULTS** (a) The Allies took 20,000 prisoners, the French, 14,000

(b) The Allies held the field

9 The Union, 1707 (1)—William III, with his usual clear-sightedness, had long foreseen the necessity of uniting the two

countries of England and Scotland, as well as the two crowns. The Scottish Parliament, grieved and sore under the disaster of Darien, had in 1704 passed an Act of Security, which decreed that, after the Queen's death, the successor to the throne of Scotland should *not* be the English king, unless Scotland were allowed to enjoy all the commercial privileges which had hitherto belonged to England. The Whig party had promoted the idea of the Union with great eagerness ever since the Revolution of 1688. After much discussion, commissioners were appointed,—thirty for each country,—and by them a Treaty of Union was drawn up, which, by the aid of promises of money, places, and peerages, passed the Scottish Parliament sitting in Edinburgh. The chief clauses of this important agreement were —

- (i) That the two kingdoms should form one—under the title of Great Britain, and should have one Parliament
- (ii) That the Electress Sophia of Hanover and her heirs should succeed to the crown of the United Kingdom, but on condition of their being Protestants
- (iii) That all British colonies and British ports should be open to Scotch vessels and to Scotch traders
- (iv) That Scotland should be represented in the House of Lords by sixteen Peers, who were to be elected for each Parliament, and by forty five members in the House of Commons
- (v) That the Presbyterian Church of Scotland should be maintained, and that the Scottish Courts of Law should remain unchanged
- (vi) In reply to the Scottish Act of Security, the English Parliament had passed an Act to exclude Scottish sheep, cattle, coals, and linen from England

✓ 10 **The Union, 1707** (ii) —There was now therefore only one Parliament for the two countries, the term *British* applied to the English, the Scotch, and the Welsh, and a national flag was adopted for the United Kingdom. Scotland gained enormously by the Union. Small villages rose rapidly into great towns, and Glasgow, which was then a small quiet country town on the green banks of the clear-flowing Clyde, began to flourish and to grow, until now it is the second city in the kingdom, with a population of three-quarters of a million, and wealth beyond even the dreams of the Scotchman of 1707.

(i) The chief grievance of the Scots was that they were not allowed to trade with the English colonies. They were also uneasy, if they joined England, about their Church, their Law, and possible taxes. On all these points the English Commissioners gave way.

(ii) "The gentry of Scotland looked on themselves as robbed of their natural consequence, and disgraced in the eyes of the country Three rebellions (1708, 1715, 1745) two of which assumed a very alarming character, may, in a great measure, be set down to the unpopularity of this great national act, and the words, 'Prosperity to Scotland, and no Union,' is the favourite inscription to be found on Scottish sword blades, between 1707 and 1746'—SIR W. SCOTT

Louis to create a diversion sent a fleet to the Forth in 1708 The Pretender was to have gone with it but he had taken measles Admiral Byng drove the fleet back to Dunkirk

11 Change of Favourite—The Queen was, in 1706, growing weary of a favourite who managed her and led her, or drove her and planned for her, and never allowed her to have her own way Mrs Morley was beginning to shudder at the very name of Mrs Freeman Abigail Hill, afterwards Mrs Masham, was the new favourite, and Queen Anne sent a message to the Duchess of Marlborough to deliver up the gold key which was the symbol of her office as Lady of the Bedchamber At first she refused point-blank, but when she saw that she must, "she took it from her side, threw it into the middle of the room, and bade the Duke take it up and carry it to whom he pleased" Mrs Freeman had had marble chimney-pieces and brass door-locks fitted to the rooms she occupied in the Palace, and, in the intensity of her spite, she ordered the chimney-pieces to be taken out and the door-locks to be removed She flung away the keys, so that they could not be found, and said that "old Morley might buy a new lot for ten shillings" The Whig rule was evidently coming to an end, and the Tory star was rising in the political sky

(i) Mr Masham was a gentleman of the Queen's household, and was made a peer Mrs (afterwards Lady) Masham was a strong Tory, an ardent High Churchwoman, and a devoted adherent of the exiled Stuarts

(ii) The Queen had weak eyes and could read little But she early learnt to play on the guitar, and to cultivate cards and gossip with her young friend Sarah Jennings These tastes were afterwards encouraged by Mrs Masham

12 Dr Sacheverell.—An unlooked-for event hastened the progress of the Tories Doctor Henry Sacheverell, the rector of St Saviour's, Southwark, had preached a sermon in St Paul's before the Lord Mayor and Aldermen of London, in which he declared the Revolution to have been a most unrighteous and unjust movement, advocated the old Tory doctrine of *non resistance*, called for the punishment of Dissent and Dissenters, and urged all good citizens to rally round the Church, which he declared to be "in danger"—in the

most terrible danger The Lord Mayor, who sympathised with him, begged him to print his sermon, and the Government resolved, against the advice of Marlborough, to try him for sedition His trial lasted three weeks The Queen herself came down to the trial, to encourage the Doctor, the common people, who were all for "High Church and Dr Sacheverell," burnt down several Dissenting chapels to show their orthodoxy and their zeal, and London was filled with riot, confusion, and alarm Sacheverell was found guilty, and forbidden to preach for three years, but the lightness of the punishment was regarded as a triumph for the Tories, who felt they had the people and the country with them

(i) The Queen went every day to the trial at Westminster Hall as a private spectator But the mob quickly found out who was in the sedan chair, and kept shouting, "God bless the Queen and Dr Sacheverell! We hope your Majesty is for High Church and Dr Sacheverell!"

(ii) The Doctor was prohibited from preaching for three years, and two of his sermons were ordered to be burnt at the hands of the common hangman

13 The Treaty of Utrecht —The country was weary of the long war, and weary of the taxation which the war brought with it Before the end of the year 1710 Godolphin was out, and Harley, Earl of Oxford, the leader of the Tory party, was in With him was joined Mr St John, afterwards Lord Bolingbroke, and these two men at once set to work to put an end to the war Marlborough was accused of taking bribes from a contractor who supplied bread to the army, was dismissed from all his offices, and the war was brought to an end by the Treaty of Utrecht in 1713 By this treaty Great Britain was allowed to keep Gibraltar and Minorca, and received Nova Scotia and the island of St Christopher in the West Indies, while Louis, on his part, bound himself to guarantee the succession of the House of Hanover This treaty, though too favourable to France, filled the cup of Louis's humiliation, he had been forced to recognise William the Third, he was now obliged to recognise Queen Anne, and we shall see him compelled also to recognise George I

(i) The chief points in the Treaty of Utrecht were —

(a) Louis XIV to expel the Old Pretender from France, and to recognise Anne and the Protestant Succession.

(b) Hudson's Bay, Nova Scotia, Newfoundland, St Christopher's (St Kitts), Gibraltar, and Minorca to remain in the hands of Great Britain

(1) Philip to be allowed to keep Spain, but the French and Spanish Crowns never to be united.

(2) The Asiento (=contract to supply slaves to the South American Colonies) to be granted to the South Sea Company for ten years; and the privilege of sending, to South America one British ship a year for cargo.

(3) The War of the Spanish Succession added £22,500,000 to the National Debt.

14. **The Rise of Party Government** — It is in the reign of this feeble Queen that we must place the first clearly marked beginnings of Party Government in England. James II. had violent quarrels with his parliaments, William III. had serious differences with his, and often had to yield; but Anne had no disputes with the thirteen parliaments of her reign, because she was quite content to let them do as they pleased. The power of the Crown hence gradually passed into the hands of the party that had a majority, and, as the power of the Crown grew less, the power of the dominant party in Parliament grew greater. And thus it gradually came to pass that Government by Party became the recognised means of managing the affairs of the country; and as this power fell into the hands of those who could command most votes, the power of Government gradually passed into the hands of the voters. In Anne's time, the chief parties were the Whigs and the Tories. The Tories were attached to the Church, detested the Dissenters, and their cry was "The Church in Danger!" The Whigs wished to see Toleration fairly established, to make the laws equal for all, and their cry was "The Protestant Succession in Danger!" The Whigs, who loved the memory of William III., 'the Protestant hero,' were all for fighting Louis and breaking down the power of France, the Tories were on the contrary, the Peace Party, were lukewarm in the war, opposed it, and afterwards put an end to it. The Crown could choose its own Ministers, and Anne did so; but gradually the choice of Ministers fell to the leader of the Majority, to the statesman who could command the largest following in the House of Commons and the Sovereign, though he might suggest or object, could not interfere. Party Government in Parliament got gradually organised; and a set of principles and rules were formed and established for its peaceful guidance.

15. **Death of Queen Anne** — The Queen had never been a strong woman, and her health had been much broken by sorrow and anxiety.

She had seen all her nineteen children pass to the grave before her. Her only son, the young Duke of Gloucester, died before she came to the throne. Nor were her habits good. She was too fond of "good living", and on the very day her husband died "she ate three very large and hearty meals." The business of the State troubled and excited her. She would have liked very much that her brother, the Old Pretender, should be her successor, in spite of his religion and the Act of Settlement. Bolingbroke favoured this feeling, and was indeed carrying on a secret correspondence with the Chevalier St George, as the Old Pretender was called abroad, but Oxford did not like this, and the two quarrelled. On the afternoon of the 27th of July 1714, there was a long and violent dispute between the two, which lasted—to the great agitation of Anne—far into the night, and which ended in the dismissal of Oxford from the office of Lord High Treasurer. Within two days the Queen was struck by apoplexy, and died on the 1st of August. Bolingbroke had had no time to carry through his schemes for the House of Stuart, the hopes of the Jacobites had been defeated by the Queen's delivering the staff of the highest office—that of the Lord High Treasurer—to the Duke of Shrewsbury—the same Shrewsbury who had sent for the Prince of Orange, and bidding him "use it for the good of her people." The Duke was a Whig, he and his friends were staunch supporters of the House of Brunswick, and the good of the people meant in their opinion the Protestant Succession.

(i) The Queen's death was brought on, or at least accelerated, by the violent quarrels at her Council meetings. Harley, "the dragon," spoke in the most furious manner to Lady Masham, and was replied to with spirit. Anne said she "could not outlive their violence," and had only strength at two in the morning of 28th July to ask Harley to resign. She died on August 1st.

(ii) "Neither wholly lost in the frivolities of life, nor deaf to the call of its nobler duties, condescending, without want of dignity in bearing, and open handed to the soldiers who fought her battles, and to the poor under the shadow of her throne." —
WARD

(iii) "She was a pattern of conjugal affection and fidelity, a tender mother, a warm friend, an indulgent mistress, a munificent patron, and a mild and merciful prince." —
SWOLLETT

(iv) Queen Anne was an ardent supporter of the Church of England. She gave up the "first-fruits and the tenths" due to the Crown, to increase the salaries of the smaller and poorer livings. This fund has since been called Queen Anne's Bounty.

(a) Before the Reformation the first-fruits was the income of every spiritual benefice for the first year.

(b) The tenths = the tenth part of the annual value of each living.

(c) Both of them formed part of the old royal court. The first was a tax collector of Pope John XIII. in the 17th century.

16 Great Men.—England produced many great men during the reign of the "Good Queen Anne." In war, there were Marlborough and Peterborough, the former one of the most intellectual and far seeing commanders of any age, the latter a daring and eccentric man of genius, who was celebrated for the rapidity of his movements in a campaign. In statesmanship we find the names of Harley and St John (or Bolingbroke), and the young and rising reputation of Sir Robert Walpole.

↓ () Our duke, said one of his officers, "was as calm at the mouth of a cannon as at the door of a smoking room." As he rode along the lines of battle, or galloped up in the nick of time to a battalion reeling from before the enemy's charge or shot, the fighting men and officers got new courage as they saw the splendid calm of his face, and felt that his will made them "invincible." From the date of the Battle of Blenheim, "Valcour" became a name of fear to every child in France.

(b) Charles Montague, Earl of Peterborough (1653-1735), served as a sailor in his youth. He took the side of William of Orange at the Revolution and left Exeter for him with his sword. In 1700 he was sent to command in Spain, as a diversion against the French army. He took Barcelona, and with 1200 troops defeated a Spanish army of 7000. He was in his time Commander of the fleet and Governor of Minorca. He died at sea. Macaulay calls him "the most extraordinary character of his age."

(c) Among names in the second rank of statesmanship are Godolphin and the Dukes of Devonshire and Argyll. In war, we find the names of Prince Eugene ("our good Prince Eugene") and General (afterwards Earl) Stanhope.

(d) The most famous women were Sarah Jennings (afterwards Lady Churchill, next Duchess of Marlborough), and Abigail Hill (afterwards Mrs. and next Lady Masham).

17 Social Facts.—The reign of Queen Anne is remarkable for the rise of the daily newspaper. The *Daily Courant* was the name of the first. These papers not only purveyed news to the public, but boldly entered upon the criticism of Government procedure; and, in order to diminish their number and circulation a heavy tax was imposed upon them.—The mighty cathedral of St Pauls, after the labour of more than a generation (thirty-seven years), was at length brought to completion, at an expenditure of more than a million, by Sir Christopher Wren, in 1703. Wren was also the architect of more than fifty churches in London.—This reign was the first for several centuries that had been undisturbed by rebellion and civil war in England, and one of its greatest triumphs of peace was to place most parts of the kingdom in communication with each other by a General Post Office, which was established for the first time in 1710.

SHORT CHRONOLOGY OF QUEEN ANNES REIGN

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| <p>1702 Accession of Anno
 (a) War of the Spanish Succession.
 (b) Commissioners meet to treat for
 a Union with Scotland</p> <p>1704 (a) Rooke captures Gibraltar
 (b) Marlborough wins the Battle of
 Blenheim
 (c) Scottish Act of Security</p> <p>1706 Marlborough defeats the French at
 Ramillies</p> <p>1707 UNION WITH SCOTLAND</p> <p>1708 (a) Marlborough and Prince Eugene
 defeat the French at Oudenarde,
 and take Lille
 (b) French Fleet in the Forth</p> <p>1709 Marlborough and Prince Eugene
 defeat the French at Malplaquet,
 and take Mons.</p> <p>1710 (a) Dr Sacheverell is impeached by
 the Whigs, and the trial brings
 about a Tory reaction</p> | <p>1710 (b) The Whig Ministry is dismissed
 A Tory Government is formed
 under Harley and St John.</p> <p>1711 (a) The Duchess of Marlborough,
 through the influence of Mrs
 Masham, is dismissed
 (b) The Duke of Marlborough is ac-
 cused of peculation, and dis-
 missed
 (c) The South Sea Company is formed</p> <p>1713 (a) The Treaty of Utrecht
 (b) Harley (now Earl of Oxford)
 and St John intrigue to bring
 back the Old Pretender</p> <p>1714 (a) The Schism Act is passed, by
 which no one can keep a school
 unless he is a member of the
 Church of England
 (b) Death of Queen Anne</p> |
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BATTLES AND TREATIES OF QUEEN ANNES REIGN

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| <p>1704 Blenheim, in Bavaria, 23 miles N W
 of Augsburg Marlborough de-
 feats the French under Tallard</p> <p>1706 Ramillies, in Flanders, in which
 Marlborough again defeated
 Villeroi.</p> <p>1707 Union with Scotland.</p> | <p>1708 Oudenarde, west of Brussels, in
 which Marlborough defeats Mar-
 shal Vendôme</p> <p>1709 Malplaquet, in French Flanders, in
 which Marlborough defeats Mar-
 shal Villars</p> <p>1713 Treaty of Utrecht, "the shameful
 peace, which recognises Philip
 v, Duke of Anjou, as King of
 Spain</p> |
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IMPORTANT CONTEMPORARY EVENTS

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|---|--|
| <p>1703 St. Petersburg founded</p> <p>1709 Charles XII. of Sweden defeated by
 the Russians at the Battle of
 Pultowa</p> | <p>1714 Death of the Electress Sophia,
 mother of George I, and grand
 daughter of James I of England.</p> |
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ENGLAND IN THE SEVENTEENTH CENTURY

1 Political—The mediæval baron—the feudal lord had disappeared in the course of the sixteenth century, and in his place stood the modern nobleman. The rise of commerce and manufactures had also given us the wealthy merchant, and had greatly added to the power of cities and towns—of burghers and town-councillors. The “divine right of kings” gradually disappeared during the century, and the Puritanic method of government had also been tried and found wanting. The power of Parliament grew greater and greater from reign to reign. During the Rebellion, it cut off the head of a king, at the Restoration, it recalled a king from exile, at the Revolution, it dismissed one king and elected another.

2 The Country—About one half of the country was in a state of nature. Where we now see rich corn-land and green pastures, there stretched wide moors, dense forests, and dreary fens. Deer roamed in thousands, wild boars were plentiful, wild bulls wandered in the southern forests, and the smaller wild beasts, such as badgers and wild cats, were very numerous. Fen eagles preyed on fish along the eastern coasts, huge bustards roamed along the eastern downs, and clouds of cranes could be seen hovering over the marshes of Cambridgeshire and the fens of Lincolnshire. Of scientific agriculture there was none, and even the proper rotation of crops was neither observed nor understood. The turnip had not yet been introduced, and as it was impossible in many parts to keep stock alive during the winter, the sheep and oxen were killed and salted down in large numbers at the approach of cold weather. Even wealthy people tasted no fresh meat during the winter months. The mineral resources of England—tin and copper—were hardly worked at all—except in Cornwall, and most of the iron required by the country was brought from the Continent.

(i) In the seventeenth century, about 50 per cent. of the land in England was under cultivation, in the latter half of the nineteenth, the productive area is 80 per cent. of the whole.

(ii) “The last wild boars, which had been preserved for the royal diversion, had been slaughtered by the exasperated rustics during the licence of the Civil War.”

(iii) Sheep and oxen were very much smaller and leaner than they are now. The average weight of a sheep was 25 lbs—it is now 100 lbs, of an ox 370 lbs—it is now about 1000 lbs.

(iv) In the seventeenth century, about 10,000 tons of pig-iron were cast in the nineteenth, nearly 5,000,000 tons. Wood was used for smelting iron; the forests were rapidly disappearing, and Parliament had to interfere and prohibit the employment of timber.

3 Population—The population of England during the seventeenth century ranged from five millions to five millions and a half. Four-fifths of the people were engaged in the tilling of the soil. The wages of a common labourer averaged fourpence a day with food, or eightpence without food. A mechanic earned a shilling a day. On the other hand, meat, beer, and bread (made of rye, barley, or oats) were only about half the price they now are. The class that required assistance from the parish was very large, and some writers have estimated the paupers of England as one in four of the whole population. The hardships of the agricultural labourer were to a large extent mitigated by the privilege of easy squatting.

(i) In some parts of England, the wages of the labourer were fixed by law.

(ii) The paupers of England amounted, in 1890, to little more than 800,000, or about one in thirty of the population.

(iii) "Of the wild land in England, much was, by law, common, and, in such tracts, squatters and trespassers were tolerated to an extent now unknown. The peasant who dwelt there could, at little or no charge, procure occasionally some palatable addition to his hard fare, and provide himself with fuel for the winter. He kept a flock of geese on what is now an orchard rich with apple blossoms. He snared wild fowl on the fen which has long since been drained and divided into corn fields and turnip-fields. He cut turf among the furze bushes on the moor which is now a meadow bright with clover and renowned for butter and cheese."—MACAULAY

4 The Towns—In the seventeenth century, Bristol was, after London, the largest English seaport, and Norwich was the greatest manufacturing town. Manchester was a large village with less than six thousand inhabitants, and without a single printing-press or a solitary coach or cab. Leeds was not much larger than Manchester, but its trade in woollen cloths was rapidly growing. The population of Sheffield, in the time of Charles II, did not amount to four thousand souls, and the majority of the working-people were deformed or had distorted limbs. Birmingham had also a population under four thousand, but was beginning, in the middle of the century, to rise into notice as a centre of the hardware manufacture. Liverpool was a town of about the same size, the annual shipping amounted to about 1400 tons, and the sailors belonging to the port to nearly two hundred.

(i) The populations of these towns at the present time are —

Bristol,	250,000	Leeds,	370,000
Norwich,	95,000	Sheffield,	340,000
Manchester,	400,000	Birmingham	460,000
Liverpool,		630,000	

(ii) In the seventeenth century, the phrase "to go to Town" did not mean to go up to London, but to go to the local capital. Thus the country gentry had "town houses" in York, the capital of the north, in Exeter, the capital of the west, in Shrewsbury in Chester, the capital of West Cheshire, and in Stockport, the capital of East Cheshire. They spent their winters in these fashionable towns, and went to balls, routs, dinners, and other festivals.

5 London.—London was, in the seventeenth century, as it is at the present day, by far the largest town in the kingdom. The population amounted to about half-a-million. As a port, it was the rival of the great continental port of the Low Countries—Amsterdam. But it had only one bridge—London Bridge, and that bridge had no great merits, from the point of view either of those who crossed it, or of the boats that sailed under it. The City, as it is still called, was

the most important part of London. The streets were very narrow, many of the houses were of wood and plaster, and the upper stories projected far over the shops and booths below. The City, in the seventeenth century, was not merely a place of business for merchants, it was also their residence. There they lived in stately mansions, with decorated entrances, noble staircases, and splendid halls and rooms. The humbler merchants lived over their shops. Men and women, in striking dresses and costumes which indicated their rank or profession, filled the streets. The houses were not known by numbers, but by signs, and the Golden Fleeces, the Saracen's Heads, the Blue Boars, the Royal Oaks, made a most picturesque confusion for the eye as it glanced along the rows of houses. The "West End" reached no further west than St James's Square. The streets were ill lighted, or hardly lighted at all. The police or watchmen were so feeble that thieves, robbers, ruffians, and bullies of every kind did pretty much what they pleased, and a citizen might be called upon to defend himself at any moment. The coffee-houses of London were the chief social institution, and were to the seventeenth century what Clubs are in the present day. "The coffee house was the Londoner's home."

(i) The ships of London entering and leaving the port amount to more than 20,000,000 tons; the shipping entering and leaving all the ports of Holland amounts to about 9,000,000 tons. (The tonnage of vessels entering and leaving British ports amounts to over 100,000,000.)

(ii) "In 1685, a single line of irregular arches (London Bridge), overhung by piles of mean and crazy houses, and garnished—after a fashion worthy of the naked barbarians of Dahomey—with scores of mouldering heads impeded the navigation of the river." —MACAULAY

(iii) "The Lord Mayor of London was never seen in public without his rich robe, his hood of black velvet, his gold chain, his jewel, and a great attendance of harbingers and guards." —MACAULAY

(iv) John Milton was born in 1608, in Bread Street (in the City), at the sign of the Spread Eagle.

(v) "There was no foot-pavement in London as distinguished from the carriage-road. The carmen in the principal road fought with the hael ney coach drivers. The chairmen drove the foot-passengers off the railed-in way, and the foot-passengers themselves struggled for the honour of the wall. Every square and open place was a receptacle for rubbish and filth." —KNAIGHT

6 The Upper Classes.—The country gentlemen of England, during this century, were not a wealthy class. They were not rich enough to travel on the Continent, nor to keep up a house in London. Their heirs passed most of their time with grooms and gamekeepers, and knew only enough to value grain and stock, and to drive a good bargain. Their chief pleasures were field-sports, and their language and pronunciation were of the broadest and coarsest kind—were those of boors and clowns. Their intellects were permanently muddled with strong beer. Almost every meal had its close in intoxication. The ladies of the house, who could barely read and write, but who could brew gooseberry wine and make pie-crust, left the table as soon as the viands had been devoured, the gentlemen called for fresh tankards of strong ale and pipes of strong tobacco, and the dinner generally ended with the host and some of the guests asleep under the table. The politics of the country gentlemen were Tory, and, however badly

filth, stones, or brickbats by the lookers-on. When a criminal was flogged at the cart's tail, no pitying eye surveyed him in the long street, but a vile and coarse-minded rabble pressed round the hangman at his hideous task, shouting with laughter and with glee, urging him to put more power into his arm and his cat-o'-nine tails, and to make the unhappy victim howl again. "The prisons were hells upon earth" women were flogged in them, and men who called themselves gentlemen made up parties of pleasure—"parties of gentlemen and ladies"—to go and gloat over the sickening sight.

(i) Dr Busby, a head master of Westminster, was the type of a flogging school master. "Pedagogues," says Macaulay, "knew no way of imparting knowledge but by beating their pupils."

(ii) "A man pressed to death for refusing to plead, a woman burned for coining, excited less sympathy than is now felt for a gilled horse or an over-driven ox." —MACAULAY

9 Communication—Travelling was, in the seventeenth century, difficult, expensive, and dangerous. The roads—if roads they might be called—were full of ruts and deep holes, and, on dark nights, they could not be distinguished from the unenclosed fields, heaths, or fens that lay on either side. Coaches would stick fast in quagmires or in muddy holes, and the footmen had to haul them out with ropes, or to run to the nearest farm for a team of horses. A coach and six was often a necessity. When a river overflowed its banks, travellers had to swim for their lives. The markets of country-towns often remained unsupplied with provisions for months together, owing to the state of the roads. The side-roads or country by-roads were totally unfit for carts or carriages; they could only be traversed by teams of pack-horses. The stage-coach between London and Oxford took two days for the journey, the "Flying Coach," in the latter half of the century, professed to do the distance in twelve hours. The York coach required four days to go to London, at Christmas time, more than five days. On the other hand, the way-side inns were excellent, the food and wines were of the best, and the welcome always kind and cordial. But highwaymen infested the roads, and they were sometimes in league with the inn-keepers, who gave them useful information. Letters were delivered in the country towns about three times a week, in the far north and west, only once. "The mail-bags were carried on horseback day and night at the rate of about five miles an hour."

(i) The footmen, whose duty it was to run or walk by the side of the coach, carried bundles of ropes on their left shoulders, to be used when occasion demanded; and a survival of these bundles is still to be seen on the shoulders of men servants. "When Prince George of Denmark visited the stately mansion of Petworth (in Sussex) in wet weather, he was six hours in going nine miles."

(ii) "In the seventeenth century the inhabitants of London were, for almost every practical purpose, farther from Reading than they now are from Edinburgh, and farther from Edinburgh than they now are from Vienna." —MACAULAY

(iii) The progress of a traveller might be described in the words used by Milton of Satan. He

"O'er bog or steep, through straight, rough, dense, or rare,
With head, hands, wings, or feet, pursued his way,
And swam, or sunk, or waded, crept, or flew."

"In the first fourteen sessions of the reign of George III., 452 acts were passed for the repairing of highways in different districts."

(iv) In Charles II's time, the charge for carrying a letter was 2d for 80 miles. The annual gross receipts of the Post-Office amounted to about £70,000, to day they amount to about £12,000,000. The profits were about £20,000, to day they are about £3 000,000.

10 Manufactures—The woollen manufacture was the chief industry of England, and all others were regarded as secondary and inferior. Wool was "the foundation of England's riches." The two centres of this manufacture were in the south-west and the north-east. Frome, Bradford-on-Avon, etc., were the chief seats of the manufactures in the south, Leeds, Bradford, Halifax, etc., were its chief abodes in the north. The largest cloth market in England was the "Bridge of Leeds," over the river Aire. The chief cloth-making town in the country was Norwich. Manchester had made a beginning during this century in the manufacture of cotton, which was brought from Smyrna and the Levant. The manufacture of silk was carried on chiefly in Spitalfields—in the east of London, where it had been introduced by French refugees who fled after the Revocation of the Edict of Nantes by Louis XIV in 1685.

The Revolution Period of 1688 was the "period of transition from the plough to the loom, from the spinning wheel to the factory, from the age of tools to the age of machinery."

11 Newspapers and Books—The daily newspaper did not exist at all, not even in the end of the century, when the Whig Party was in power, and the principles of freedom were gaining ground in the nation. A few papers appeared twice a week, but the best place to get the news of the day was not the journal, but the coffee-house. People in the country had their Newsletter once a week, and the newswriter went about everywhere, from coffee-house to coffee-house, collecting news and gossip of every kind. These newsletters, which were in manuscript, were handed about from family to family until they were black and torn with thumbing and handling. There were no printing-presses anywhere except in London and the two Universities, and the only press in the North of England was at York.—There were no circulating libraries even in London, and the library, even of a country gentleman, consisted of the Bible, a hymn-book, and a few books on theology. Country ladies were not educated at all, not one of them could even spell respectably.

(i) The Licensing Act expired in 1679, and any one could publish a sermon or a poem without leave from the Censor. But the English Judges were unanimously of opinion that no one except Government was at liberty to publish political news.

(ii) There were 34 counties of England in which no printing press existed—one of them being Lancashire.

(iii) "The shops of the great book sellers, near St. Paul's Churchyard, were crowded every day and all day long with readers, and a known customer was often permitted to carry a volume home.—MACAULAY

(iv) Even Mary—the wife of William III—was unable to spell. She spelt *coronation* "crownation."

12 Literature—No greater contrast could be found in the history of this country than that between the literature of the first part of the seventeenth century and the literature of the last part. In the early part of the century lived and wrote Shakespeare, Ben Jonson,

Beaumont and Fletcher, Massinger, and other great English dramatic poets and writers. At the end, or towards the end, we have Richard Baxter, John Dryden, and John Locke. Between them come the two poets—a contrast in politics and in religion as well as in poetry—John Milton and Samuel Butler, while in prose we find the great names of men of very different styles of genius—Jeremy Taylor and John Bunyan. The writers of the early part of the century were genuine Englishmen, influenced only by English thought and life, the writers of the latter part, more especially Dryden, were greatly under the influence of French literature and French manners. The Revolution and the Restoration had come between the two periods, and the gay old English life, as well as the stern manners of Puritanism, had disappeared in favour of the looseness and coarseness introduced by Charles II and his foreign court.

(i) Shakespeare died in 1616, just eight years after Milton was born.

(ii) Ben Jonson (1573 1637) was made poet laureate in 1619. He held a pension both from James I and Charles I. His best-known play is "Volpone, or the Fox."

(iii) Philip Massinger (1581 1610) was the author of many plays, among others "A New Way to pay Old Debts."

(iv) John Milton (1608 1674) published his greatest work, "Paradise Lost," in 1667 (Edward Hyde, Earl of Clarendon, the grandfather of two Queens of England—Mary and Anne—was born and died in the same years as Milton). He wrote the "History of the Rebellion," that is, of the Parliamentary wars.)

(v) Samuel Butler (1612 80) wrote the "Hudibras," which he brought out three years after the Restoration. It is a mock heroic poem, written to ridicule the manners, language, and religious habits of the Puritans. It was the favourite book of Charles II.

"He never ate, nor drank, nor slept,
But Hudibras still near him slept,

—but he was too selfish to do anything for Butler.

(vi) Richard Baxter (1615 91) was a wonderfully eloquent writer. He was Rector of Kidderminster, and was driven out of his rectory at the beginning of the Civil War. His greatest work is "The Saints' Everlasting Rest."

(vii) John Dryden (1631 1700) is the greatest of our English poets in the second rank. He wrote numerous plays and a great many poems. His best-known works are the "Absalom and Achitophel" (a political satire), his translation of Virgil's "Æneid," and his ode called "Alexander's Feast." (This last poem he wrote at one sitting when at the age of sixty-six.)

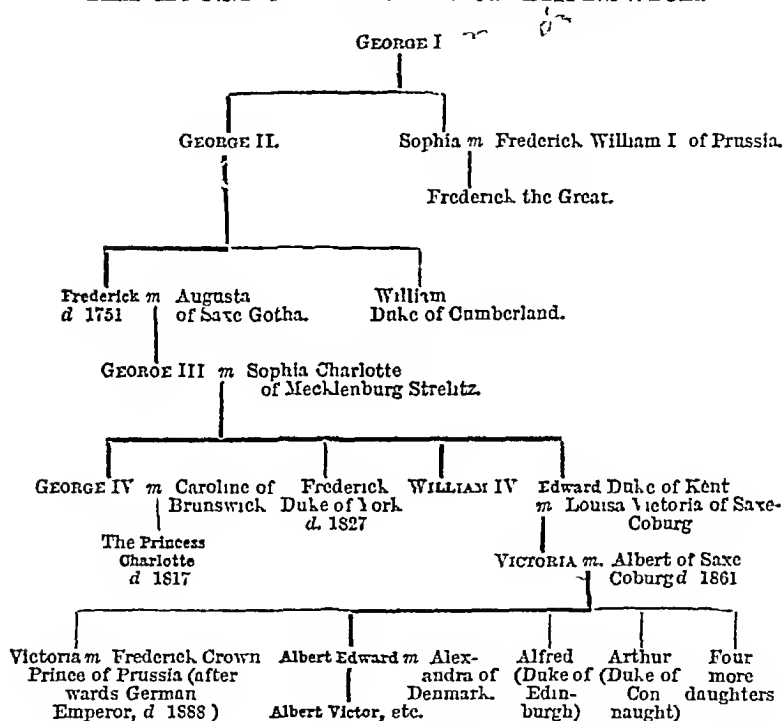
(viii) John Locke (1632 1704), a great English philosopher, wrote "An Essay on the Human Understanding." He displays "the very genius of common sense."

(ix) Jeremy Taylor (1613 67) is the most eloquent and ornate in style of all our English Divines. His "Sermons" and "Holy Living and Holy Dying" are his best works. He has been called "the Shakespeare of English Prose."

(x) John Bunyan (1628 88) is known all over the world as the author of "The Pilgrim's Progress"—a book which has fascinated young and old for many generations. He is sometimes called the "Spenser of the People."

BOOK VIII
THE HOUSE OF HANOVER
(OR BRUNSWICK)

THE HOUSE OF HANOVER OR BRUNSWICK.



This new House was called the House of Brunswick (as well as of Hanover), because the first Elector of Hanover was a Duke of Brunswick

Prince Leopold, Duke of Albany, died in the year 1884

CHAPTER I

GEORGE THE FIRST

Born 1660 Succeeded (at the age of 54) 1714 Died 1727
 Reigned 13 years

GEORGE I, King of England, Scotland, and Ireland, was the eldest son of Ernest Augustus, Elector of Hanover, and of Sophia, youngest daughter of Elizabeth (Queen of Bohemia), and granddaughter of James I. He was born at Hanover in 1660. He was by profession a soldier, and he showed both courage and zeal in his profession. He succeeded to the throne by virtue of the Act of Settlement (or Succession Act) of 1701, which excluded all the heirs of Charles I. or James II., who were themselves Roman Catholics, or had married Roman Catholics. George I. was proclaimed king in London, Edinburgh, and Dublin immediately on the death of Anne. George could neither speak nor read English. He married Sophia Dorothea of Zell (in Brunswick). They had two children, George II. and Sophia, who married Frederick William of Prussia. For the last thirty-two years of her life his wife was a prisoner in the fortress of Ahlden, and she was never allowed to come to England. George died at Osnabrück on June 9th, 1727.

CONTEMPORARY SOVEREIGNS

FRANCE	PRUSSIA	RUSSIA	SWEDEN
LOUIS XIV. to 1715	FREDERICK WILLIAM	PETER THE GREAT	CHARLES XII.
LOUIS XV.	1713	1689 1725	1697 1718

✓/1. George I 1714-1727 — An elderly little German gentleman, who could hardly speak a word of English, whose manners were shy, sullen, and morose, who had kept his wife prisoner in a castle for years, who was dressed all in brown, even to his stockings, and who was constantly surrounded by his own countrymen, could not awaken in the breasts of Englishmen any of that feeling of loyalty which they are always ready to cherish and to display. But this little gentle-

man stood as the symbol of the Protestant Succession, and therefore, he was welcome to the majority of the nation. The Jacobites did not stir hand or foot. It was the Whigs who brought him over, he put himself entirely in Whig hands, and thus the establishment of the House of Hanover took too much the appearance of a party triumph. George's first Parliament, which was strongly Whig, it once set to work to impeach Bolingbroke, Oxford, and Ormond. An article in the Treaty of Utrecht had stipulated that the Pretender should be expelled from France, but these statesmen were accused of having connived at the violation of this article, and even of having carried on a correspondence with the Pretender himself. Bolingbroke and Ormond fled to France, but Oxford had to spend two years in the Tower. George I could not speak English, he did not understand the working or the traditions of the British Constitution, he was therefore obliged to throw himself entirely on his ministers. Hence the system of parliamentary government, which began under William III and strengthened itself under Queen Anne, took firm root during this reign, and has grown to be a living part of the political existence of this country.

(i) The return of the Stuarts was not only a possible, but a very probable, event. Queen Anne was fond of her father James II, and had a weakness for her half brother, the "Old Pretender" (James III), St John (Bolingbroke) had a strong talent for intrigue, the Jacobite party was well organised, very much in earnest, and in close sympathy with the conservative feeling of the body of the people.

(ii) When George I landed at Greenwich, he was most courteous to Marlborough and the Whig Lords, cut Ormond dead and barely noticed Oxford, who was introduced to him as "Lord Oxford, of whom your Majesty has heard."

✓ (iii) Riots broke out all over England, and the Jacobite party and the Tories made as many difficulties for the Government as they could. Under these circumstances, a Bill called the Riot Act was passed, which provided that any assembly of more than twelve persons must disperse upon being summoned to do so by a magistrate, and for failing to go should be judged guilty of felony.

✓ (iv) General Stanhope and Lord Townshend were George's first Secretaries of State, and Sir Robert Walpole was his first Chancellor of the Exchequer. They were all Whigs.

2 "The Fifteen"—A year after the accession of George, the Earl of Mar, who had been Secretary of State for Scotland in the last reign, raised the standard of the Pretender in the Highlands. Mar was a man of no great ability, but he had always shown considerable skill in trimming his sails to the wind of fortune, and had thus

earned the nickname of "Bobbing John" He had offered his services to George—had offered to present a loyal address from the Highland clans, but George was cold, and even rude, and told him that he had no further occasion for his services Disgusted by the conduct of the king, he hurried to London, sought favour at court, took a wife from among the great people of the Whig party, and then, having deceived every one, he secretly went back north to his own country of Braemar, on the river Dee, sent out invitations to the Highland chiefs for a hunting-party, and at this "Hunting of Braemar" raised the royal standard of James VIII of Scotland and III of England. The Highlanders shuddered when they saw the gilt ball on the top of the flagstaff carried away by a sudden gust of wind, but, persuaded by Mar, they separated to send the fiery cross through their glens and valleys and mountain sides. One end of this cross was singed with fire, and the other dipped in blood, and the symbol meant that, if the people did not obey the summons of their feudal superiors, they would be visited with fire and sword—would have their houses burnt over their heads, and be put to death. The Jacobite gentlemen of Northumberland and Cumberland also took up arms, but they were soon after defeated at Preston.—The Royalist army in Scotland was commanded by the Duke of Argyll, and the opposing forces met at Sheriffmuir, near Dunblane. Mar's troops completely routed the left wing of the Royalists, but, on the other hand, his own left wing was defeated and put to flight, and Argyll was left in possession of the field. The Pretender himself landed at Peterhead about six weeks after, went on to Scone, and fixed his coronation for the 23d of January, but, finding his chances of success very small, he went back again to France. The Earls of Derwentwater and Kenmare were beheaded for their share in this attempt, the Earl of Nithsdale escaped from prison by the help of his wife, who dressed him in women's clothes, about thirty persons were hanged, and more than a thousand were transported as slaves to the plantations of America.

Jacobite
Rebellion in
Scotland
1715.

(1) Sheriffmuir is a high table land between Dunblane and Bridge of Allan, in Perthshire. Argyll held the road from Perth to Stirling—that is, from the Highlands to the Lowlands. The battle was a drawn battle, but Argyll still held the road. The old ballad runs thus

"There s some say that we won, and some say that they won
And some say that none won at all, man

But of one thing I'm sure, that at Sheriffmuir
 A battle there was, which I saw, man
 And we ran, and they ran, and they ran, and we ran,
 And we ran, and they ran awa', man

(u) Forster, who headed the rising in the North, was member for Northumberland. He escaped from prison

3 The Septennial Act—The year 1716 was to have been the year of a general election for Parliament, but the Government, fearing that the Jacobites would take advantage of this to raise riots and create disturbances, and might even secure a majority in Parliament, passed a Bill, called the Septennial Act, which authorised Parliament to sit for seven years. It was a temporary measure, but it has never been repealed, and it is still law

(i) "The Septennial Act, says Dr Priestley, "was a direct usurpation of the ancient rights of the people, for, by the same authority that one Parliament prolonged their own power to seven years, they might have continued it to twice seven. This act is "analogous to the act of the Long Parliament in declaring itself indestructible.

(u) The excuse for it was that "a restless and Popish faction are designing and endeavouring to renew rebellion

4 Foreign Affairs—As Hanover was now united to the British Crown, the chances were in favour of Great Britain becoming more and more involved in Continental politics. But, indeed, the chief object of George I's Government was to prevent any European power giving assistance to the Jacobites. In other words, the foreign policy of George's ministers was to preserve the Treaty of Utrecht. For this purpose the Triple Alliance, between England, France, and Holland, was formed in 1717. The Spanish minister, Cardinal Alberoni, was anxious to get back some of the dominions which Spain had lost under that famous treaty, and it was chiefly against Spain that, in 1718, the Quadruple Alliance between Britain, France, Germany, and Holland was formed. War was also declared against Spain in the end of this year. Charles XII of Sweden, "the brilliant madman" who had overrun the east of Europe with his army, was angry with George for having—as Elector of Hanover—purchased from Denmark the duchy of Bremen, and he agreed with the Jacobites to land in Scotland with 10,000 men, but the plan came to nothing—In 1719, again, the prime minister of Spain, Alberoni,

invited the Pretender to Madrid, placed at his disposal 6000 men, 12,000 stand of arms, and a fleet of ten ships of war, but the fleet was struck by a tempest, scattered, and driven back to Spain.

(i) A small band of Spaniards effected a landing at Glenshiel, in the Highlands they were joined by parties of Highlanders, but the whole force was easily disposed of

(ii) The crown of Hanover was held by a British sovereign till the accession of Queen Victoria. The Salic Law forbade a woman to be sovereign of Hanover, and the crown passed to the Duke of Cumberland—one of the sons of George III. After the war of 1866, Prussia seized the kingdom of Hanover (which had taken the side of Austria in the war of 66) and “mediatised” it

(iii) Before war was declared, Admiral Byng attacked and destroyed the Spanish Fleet, which was cruising off Cape Passaro, and threatening Sicily

(iv) By the Triple Alliance, the clauses in the Treaty of Utrecht regarding the succession of the House of Hanover in England, the succession of the House of Orleans in France, and the renunciation of all claims of the Spanish king on the throne of France, were fully guaranteed. Louis XIV died in 1715 his successor was his great-grandson Louis XV, a delicate little boy. The Regent of France was the Duke of Orleans, who, in the hope of being one day king himself supported the Treaty of Utrecht, so as to keep Philip of Spain—the nearest heir to the French throne—out of the succession.

5 The South Sea Bubble—The sixth year of this reign saw one of the most terrible social disasters that had ever fallen upon England. At the accession of Queen Anne, the National Debt amounted to sixteen millions, at her death it had reached fifty-two millions, and English statesmen were afraid of nothing so much as of the growth of this debt. A company had been created for the purpose of trading with the Spanish coasts of South America, it was called the South Sea Company, and it made proposals to the Government to buy up a part of the National Debt, and to give its own stock in exchange. Those who had annuities from Government were invited to exchange them for the stock of the South Sea Company. The business of this company was thoroughly sound, but their hopes and their promises were absurd and delusive—they even went so far as to hold out a prospect of fifty per cent. A rage for speculation seized the country, every man and woman was filled with an insane haste to grow rich, everybody rushed to buy, desks for bank-clerks were put up in the streets, and the consequence was, that the £100 shares of the company went gradually up to £1000. All kinds of lunatic companies were

The South
Sea Bubble
1720

started—to import asses from Spain, to extract silver from lead, to turn salt water into fresh, to introduce perpetual motion, and old and young, statesmen and errand-boys, noblemen and footmen, rushed to invest their pounds and even their sixpences in these hopeful undertakings. The nominal value of all the shares in all the companies was five hundred millions of pounds—twice the value of all the land in England. Most of these companies were without a charter, and the South Sea directors prosecuted and crushed them, but they themselves came down in the general crash. One morning it was found that no one would buy South Sea stock at £1000, and the consequence was, everybody now rushed to sell. The stock fell in price every hour, until what had been bought for £1000 now only fetched £175. The difference, £825, represented the loss on each share to those who had bought it so high a price. Thousands were ruined, many poor widows starved, merchants and nobles committed suicide, and misery reigned in London and the provinces. The madness had gone, leaving desolation and despair behind it. Another fury succeeded—a fury against the directors. Those who had lost would not be satisfied with less than hanging them, but Sir Robert Walpole, who had joined the Government, made arrangements by which individuals and the country and the Government were helped through their difficulties. The directors were, however, imprisoned, and their estates, over two millions in value, seized and divided among the sufferers.

(i) The most remarkable scheme proposed in this age of enterprise was a company "for carrying on an undertaking of great advantage, but nobody to know what it is. Shares even in this company were taken.

(ii) General (now Lord) Stanhope was charged with bribery and corruption. He burst a blood vessel, and died of the shock. Lord Sunderland had to resign his post as Secretary of State, and Aislabie, the Chancellor of the Exchequer, was formally expelled from the House.

(iii) It was remembered that Walpole had always opposed the South Sea schemes, and he now became the most popular man in the country. The year after, he was made First Lord of the Treasury and Prime Minister.

(iv) Walpole was the first person who received the title of Prime Minister. In the Norman times, the chief minister in the country was the Justiciar, between these and the Revolution Period it was the Chancellor.

6 Sir Robert Walpole—For nearly twenty years the affairs of the nation were in the hands of Sir Robert Walpole, and to him it was that England owed her rapid and sound progress in commerce.

and manufactures. His policy consisted in the pursuit of peace in every direction—peace at home, peace abroad. The age was corrupt, people acted from the lowest motives, and Walpole's motto was, "Every man has his price." One man he bought with place, or with pension, or with a title, a ribbon, or a star, another he bought with ready money put into his pocket, and so he always got the House of Commons to vote as he wished. His greatest merit is, that he maintained peace for the country longer than ever it had been kept before.—In 1722 he had to break up a Jacobite conspiracy, the chief manager of which in this country was Francis Atterbury, bishop of Rochester. Atterbury was banished the kingdom, and went over to James in France, where he spent his life in vain attempts at a new restoration.

Atterbury's Plot
1722

(i) Walpole was a typical English country gentleman, and as such was personally very popular in the House of Commons. He understood men, and could manage them without letting them see it, and he had that broad common sense which enables a man to see what measures can be carried and how.

(ii) The Jacobite Plot of 1722 caused the suspension of the Habeas Corpus Act for a whole year. This is the longest period of suspension on record in England.

(iii) "Francis Atterbury had been known for nearly thirty years as the keenest of controversialists, as well as the most impressive of preachers. From the beginning of the century he had been considered the leader of the High Church Party, and had gradually become identified with the most extreme principles of passive obedience."
Bright

(a) Walpole, if not the greatest, was probably the most satisfactory, statesman of the century. He was free alike from the incurable instability and insincerity of Bellingbrooke from the granitic solidity of Chatham, from the frigid good boyism of his son. He was an honest man, a good fellow, a good patriot according to his lights, a far-seeing statesman, a wonderfully able financier, and as a minister and politician one of the boldest, warlike, most enterprising most indefatigable fighters in all history.—GREEN

(b) "His life's spare, pure, his vulgar good humoured face were those of a common country squire. And in Walpole the squire underlay the statesman to the last. He was ignorant of books, he 'loved' neither reading nor writing, and if he had a taste for art his real love was for the table, the bottle and the chase. He rode as hard as he drank. Even in moments of political peril, the first despatch he would open was the letter from his game keeper. Walpole was the first Minister who gave our government that character of lenity which it has since generally derived."
GREEN

(c) He was the first and greatest of our Peace Ministers. "The most pernicious circumstance I read, in which this country can be a loser of war, as we must be losers while it lasts and cannot be great gainers when it ends."
GREEN

7. Ireland.—Though Ireland had a Parliament of her own, that Parliament had no power of independent legislation, because, by Poyning's Law, the English Council in London could revise and alter a bill introduced into the Irish House of Commons in any way it pleased. But, in 1719, the British Government went a step further

and passed a Bill making all laws enacted by the Parliament of England valid also in Ireland. This Bill irritated the Irish people to an extreme degree. One consequence of it was very remarkable. Walpole, in 1722, granted to William Wood, a proprietor of iron and copper mines in England, the right of minting copper coins for Ireland to the extent of £108,000. The cry arose in Ireland that the poor were going to be plundered, and the Irish Privy Council voted an address to the king, in which it pointed out that the terms of Wood's patent would bring about a loss to the nation of 150 per cent. Dean Swift, rushing into the fray, wrote "Letters by M. B. Drapier," in which he tried to show that Wood was going to make 1100 per cent profit. This was entirely wrong, but the "Drapier's Letters," as they were called, struck the chord of national feeling in the Irish heart, and Swift became the most popular man in the country. Carteret, the Lord Lieutenant, offered a reward of £300 for the discovery of the author of the "Drapier's Letters", he prosecuted their printer, but the Grand Jury threw out the bill, Dean Swift had beaten the Government, and Wood's patent had to be withdrawn—In 1727 the British Government went still further—it took away the franchise from all Roman Catholics, so that no man of that religious persuasion could either vote at an election or sit as a member of the Parliament of his own country.

(i) "The Irish went mad about Wood's half pence. The mischievous Dean stirred up the nation not only with Drapier's Letters, but with songs that were sung in every street. Wood was to be scalded in his own melted copper. He was to be hanged.

The half pence are coming—the nation's undoing,
There's an end of your ploughing, and baking, and brewing,
In short, you must all go to rack and to ruin —KNIGHT

(ii) Dean Swift said, in the character of "The Drapier," "I intend to truck with my neighbours, the butchers and bakers and the rest, goods for goods, and the little gold and silver I have I will keep by me like my heart's blood, till better times, or until I am just ready to starve, and then I will buy Mr. Wood's money, as my father did the brass money in King James's time, who could buy £10 of it for a guinea.

(iii) The consequence of the Disfranchising Act was that only one sixth of the people of Ireland possessed a vote.

✓ 8 Death of George—Like William III, George passed every summer on the Continent,—though not, like William, in the pursuit of war, for he much preferred Hanover to England. In June 1727

he set out on his last visit to his German subjects. He was travelling in his coach, when a letter was thrown in at the open window; he read it, and was struck with a fit of apoplexy. His attendants wanted to stop the carriage and obtain medical assistance, but he kept muttering, "Osnabrück! Osnabrück!" where his brother, the prince bishop, had his palace. To Osnabrück they drove, and when the bishop was awakened by the gallop of horses in his court-yard at the dead of night, he found the king of England a ghastly corpse at the back of his carriage. The letter was from his wife, who had died in prison eight months before, after having been confined for over thirty years. He left one son, George Augustus, Prince of Wales, with whom he had been quarrelling for years, and hence there had existed in London and in the country for a long time a King's Party and a Prince's Party—George had all along been a foreigner in speech, in habits and in taste. He was surrounded by a Hanoverian court, he was sullen and reserved, he was detested by the people of London, and neither he nor his favourites could make their appearance in public without being received with jeers and hootings, brickbats and execrations.

(i) "George I. showed an uncommon prudence and coolness of behaviour when he came into his kingdom, exhibiting no emotion, reasonably doubting whether he should not be turned out some day, looking upon himself only as a lodger"—THACKERAY

(ii) The quarrel between George I. and his son and the consequent formation of a King's Party and a Prince's Party, was in reality a good thing for the peace of the nation. If father and son had been agreed on their policy, those who were dissatisfied with the government would have naturally allied themselves with the Pretender. But this was not necessary, they had only to join the party of the Prince of Wales.

Under the two sovereigns who followed Anne the power of the Crown lay absolutely dormant. They were sovereigns to whom royalty in its personal sense was impossible, and their character as nearly approached its nullity as it is possible for human character to approach. Both were honest and straightforward men, who frankly accepted the irksome position of constitutional kings. But neither had any qualities which could make their position atractive to the people at large. The temper of the first was that of a gentleman miser, and his one care was of money for his favourites and himself. The temper of the second was that of a drill sergeant, who believed him self master of his realm, while he repeated the lessons he had learned from his wife and which his wife had learned from the Minister.—GALLEY

§ 9 The Work of Parliament—The Succession Act of 1701 was the work chiefly of the Whig Party, and it was to the Succession Act that George I. owed his position on the throne of England. George's First Parliament met in 1714, and contained a large majority

of Whigs The English had no feeling of personal loyalty to George—they regarded him as at best only a political necessity, the Scotch spoke of him as a “wee bit German lairdie”, but most of the nation were agreed that the system represented by this elderly German Prince must be steadfastly upheld—The Second Parliament, under the Stanhope Ministry, passed the Septennial Act in 1716—The Third Parliament tried to limit the number of Peers in the Upper House, but this measure was defeated by the exertions of Walpole In 1718 it had the good sense to repeal the Occasional Conformity Act and the Schism Act. In 1719 it passed a Bill to make all Acts passed in the British Parliament valid also in Ireland—The Fourth Parliament suspended the Habeas Corpus Act for a whole year, after the discovery of Atterbury's Plot

(i) Parliament, under the Triennial Act, would have been dissolved in 1717, and it was feared that the Jacobites might take advantage of the General Election to further another rising, or might even be strong enough to get a majority at the polls

(ii) Stanhope was anxious even to repeal the Test and Corporation Acts, but the narrow majorities he received for the repeal of the Occasional Conformity and Schism Acts showed him that it would be unwise to attempt it Then it was always easy to raise the cry of “The Church in danger !

(iii) The Bill to make all Acts of the British Parliament valid in Ireland was repealed in 1782, when Ireland obtained an independent Parliament (“the Grattan Parliament”).

✓ 10 Great Men—The most distinguished men in this reign were for the most part politicians and statesmen Of these, by far the most prominent was Sir Robert Walpole—“the first and greatest of our peace Ministers,” “the first of our Finance Ministers,” and a man possessed of the very genius of common sense Of the other Ministers on the side of the king, the ablest were Viscount Townshend and Earl Stanhope, while, on the side of the Pretender, we must observe the brilliant intellect of Bolingbroke, and the talent and perseverance of Bishop Atterbury Among literary men who took part in politics, by far the greatest were Joseph Addison, who was made Secretary of State in 1717, and Jonathan Swift—the former the most graceful, the latter the most powerful, writer of English prose in the whole range of the eighteenth century In the feeble warlike operations carried out during this reign by the Jacobites, the Earl of Mar in Scotland and Mr Forster in England, were the two most prominent persons

When Queen Anne died, Bolingbroke said, "The Tory Party is gone. He himself had to flee in the year 1715, and lay under attainder. When the attainder was removed, and he was permitted to return in 1723, he joined with Pulteney—a dissatisfied member of Walpole's Cabinet, who had quarrelled with Walpole, and formed a regular opposition. This opposition party called themselves "The Patriots." Bolingbroke also started an opposition daily paper called *The Craftsman*—the first paper ever published in this country not in the service of the Government.

✓ 11 Social Facts —The German Court and the German followers that George I brought with him in his train to England lowered the whole tone of morals and manners in the society of London. Art, too, declined, and the mean spirit produced by the prevalence of stock-exchange operations, by the low condition of the religious bodies in the country, by the permanence of peace at home and abroad, furnished no kindly or fruitful soil for the nobler arts of painting, architecture, literature, or music. In this respect the reign of George I forms a marked contrast to the reign of Queen Elizabeth.

The German women plundered, the German secretaries plundered, the German cooks and attendants plundered even Mustapha and Mahomet the German negroes, had a share of the booty. Take what you can get was the old monarch's maxim. He took our loyalty for what it was worth laid hands on what money he could, kept us assuredly from Popery and wooden shoes. Cynical and selfish as he was he was better than a king out of St Germain's with the French king's orders in his pocket, and a swarm of Jesuits in his train. —THACKERAY

SHORT CHRONOLOGY AND SUMMARY OF GEORGE I'S REIGN

1714. Accession of George I. Lord Townshend General Stanhope and Sir Robert Walpole chief ministers	1718 The Quadruple Alliance
1715 "The Fifteen." (a) Earl of Mar in Scotland Battle of Sheriffmuir (b) Forster and Lord Derwentwater in England defeated at Preston.	1719 Invasion of Scotland by the Spaniards.
1716 The Septennial Act	1720 The South Sea Bubble
1717 The Triple Alliance	1721 Walpole Prime Minister
	1722 Jacobite Plot
	1723 (a) Banishment of Atterbury (b) Return of Bolingbroke
	1727 Death of George I.

IMPORTANT CONTEMPORARY EVENTS

1715 Death of Louis XIV. Louis xv., his great-grandson, succeeds	1723 Woods' copper coinage and the Draper's Letters
1717 Charles XII of Sweden and Cardinal Alberoni of Spain encourage the Jacobites.	1725 Death of Peter the Great.
1718 Death of Charles XII.	1727 (a) Irish Roman Catholics disfran- chised (b) Irish Parliament sits from 1727 to 1760

CHAPTER II

GEORGE THE SECOND

Born 1683 Succeeded (at the age of 44) in 1727 Died 1760
Reigned 33 years

GEORGE II, only son of George I and Sophia Dorothea of Zell, was born at Herrenhausen in 1683. In 1705 he married Caroline of Anspach. They had two sons—Frederick, Prince of Wales, who died before his father William, Duke of Cumberland—and three daughters. In 1714 George came over to England with his father, and, in 1715, took his seat in the House of Lords as Duke of Rothesay. He succeeded to the throne in 1727, and died in 1760.

CHIEF PRIME MINISTERS WALFOLE, PELHAM, NEWCASTLE.
CHIEF SECRETARIES OF STATE CARTERET, FOX, PITT.

CONTEMPORARY SOVEREIGNS.

FRANCE	AUSTRIA	PRUSSIA
LOUIS XV., 1715 to 1774	MARIA THERESA, 1745 to 1765	FREDERICK WILLIAM, 1713 to 1740 FREDERICK THE GREAT, 1740 to 1786

1 George II, 1727-1760—George II was, like his father, a German in every way, liking Hanover much better than England, and interfering in Continental far more than in English politics. Like his father, too, he had a standing quarrel with his son, Frederick, Prince of Wales, who was very popular, not so much on the ground of his own merits and character as because his father was universally detested. But George II could speak English, and this was one point in his favour. He was a spare, dry little man, but brave, obstinate, passionate, and fond of soldiering. His clever wife, Caroline of Anspach, ruled him without much difficulty, and Sir Robert Walpole managed *her*, and, as we have seen, the chief policy of that statesman was to keep the country out of foreign war.

✓(i) "George was throughout life extremely regular in his habits, rose usually between five and six o'clock in the morning, went to bed for an hour's siesta in the afternoon, and distributed the rest of the day between business, pleasure, and exercise, in the most methodical manner. His favourite sport was hunting. He was so completely swayed by his wife in affairs of state that the King may be said to have been merged in the Queen. This humiliating position he did his utmost to disguise, but it gradually came to be notorious —

'You may strut, dapper George, but 'twill all be in vain

We know tis Queen Caroline, not you, that reigns''

NATIONAL BIOGRAPHY

✓(ii) "He had a good memory, an understanding narrow, but clear and active within its limits. He was totally incapable of any sort of dissimulation, or even simulation, honourable also, except when spite or avarice intervened, loyal to his allies, and an exact observer of his pledged word." — NATIONAL BIOGRAPHY

(iii) Frederick, Prince of Wales was not an estimable character. He had a most wonderful talent for exasperating his relatives—especially his father, he wrote caricatures even of his own mother, was addicted to gambling but forgot to pay what he owed, he was utterly insincere, and indifferent to truth, he had "his father's head and his mother's heart."

(iv) When he died, the following epitaph went round London —

"Here lies Fred, who was alive and is dead
Had it been his father, I had much rather
Had it been his brother, still better than another
Had it been his sister, no one would have missed her
Had it been the whole generation, still better for the nation
But since tis only Fred, who was alive, and is dead,
There's no more to be said

2 The Porteous Riot — Smuggling was at this time very common in Scotland. Two smugglers, named Wilson and Robertson, having been guilty of an act of violence against an officer of the revenue, were apprehended, tried at Edinburgh, and sentenced to death. While leaving the Tolbooth Church in Edinburgh after the "condemned sermon," surrounded by four keepers, Wilson seized two with his hands and held a third with his teeth, while Robertson knocked down the fourth guard and escaped into the crowd, who willingly made a lane for him. At the execution of Wilson, the populace attacked the city guard, who were under the command of Mr John Porteous, their captain, Porteous ordered his guard to fire, and a few persons were killed and several wounded. He was afterwards tried for murder and sentenced to death, but the English Secretary of State, taking

all the circumstances into account, sent down a reprieve. The populace of Edinburgh, however, were not to be baulked of their revenge. A quiet, determined, and well-organised mob assembled, disarmed the guard, broke into the guard-house, 1736. barricaded the streets against the soldiery, burnt through the strong door of the prison, where Porteous had been drinking wine a short time before with his friends, found him concealed up the chimney, dragged him down, and told him to prepare for death. They carried him to the Grassmarket, the usual place of execution, took a rope from a shop and left a guinea for the payment of it, and hanged him on a dyer's pole—all with the greatest order and regularity.

✓ (i) The king was absent in Hanover the queen was Regent, and she looked upon this act of the Edinburgh mob as a terrible insult to her authority. She was eager to abolish the city guard and the city charter, to level the gates, and to have the provost declared incapable of office, but she was at last prevailed upon to be satisfied with fining the city £2000. This did not please the people of Edinburgh nor were the people of London any better pleased with the royal family.

(ii) The queen lived in Kensington, then a country village, the king had been away in Germany all the summer and autumn and some daring Jacobite posted on the gate of St. James's Palace the following notice "Lost or strayed out of this house, a man, who has left his wife and six children on the parish. Whoever will give any tidings of him to the church warden of St. James's parish, so as he may be got again shall receive four shillings and sixpence reward. N.B.—This reward will not be increased, nobody judging him to deserve a crown."

(iii) George II was absent in Hanover at the time of the Porteous Riots, and Queen Caroline was Regent. She was terribly angry, and said to the Duke of Argyll that she would turn all Scotland into a hunting ground. "Then replied Argyll, 'I had better go down and get my dogs ready.'"

(iv) Sir Walter Scott has told the story of the Porteous Riots in his "Heart of Midlothian."

3 The Spanish War—Every country at this time kept the trade with its own colonies for itself, but, in spite of this, hundreds of English ships—especially from London and Bristol—carried on an unlawful trade in smuggled goods with the Spanish possessions. The Spaniards captured some of the ships in 1739. 1739, and behaved with cruelty to the English seamen. Among other things, they had, the year before, cut off the ear of a Captain Jenkins, who used to go about—asking satisfaction from the

Government—with his ear in a box, wrapt up in cotton wool, and when brought before the bar of the House of Commons, he there proudly exhibited his amputated ear. The king and the people were eager for war, and Walpole, though strongly desirous of peace, declared war against Spain rather than give up office. “The ear of Jenkins drove England to war.” London was overjoyed, and peals of bells resounded through the city. “Now they are ringing their bells,” said Walpole, “but they will soon be wringing their hands.” The war was not successful, though petty gains were made. Admiral Vernon took Portobello (on the Isthmus of Darien) with six ships, and Commodore Anson plundered Paita, a port of Chili, captured a Spanish treasure-ship with £300,000 on board, and sailed round the world—In the year after this, 1742, Walpole, having been defeated on an election question, resigned, and went to the House of Peers as Earl of Orford. Pulteney, his rival, and a great orator, had been previously called to the Upper House as Earl of Bath, and, when the great statesmen met, Orford, remembering their debates, their life, and their power in the House of Commons, walked up to him and, laughing, said, “Here we are, my lord—two of the most insignificant fellows in England.”

Walpole
resigns
1742.

(i) When asked in the House of Commons how he felt when subjected to such tortures and indignities, Jenkins replied, “I commended my soul to God, and my cause to my country.”

(ii) Pulteney, the leader of the Opposition, said, “We have no need of allies to enable us to command justice,—the story of Jenkins will raise us as many volunteers as we like.”

4 War of the Austrian Succession—In 1740, England, the Emperor Charles VI, and the Dutch entered into an alliance to counteract the designs of France and Spain. The Emperor had no son, and he wished to secure the succession to his hereditary states—Austria, Hungary, Bohemia, and the Netherlands—to his daughter Maria Theresa. The document by which the Allied Powers secured this arrangement was called the Pragmatic sanction. When the Emperor died, France and Spain declared war. We sent to the Continent a few troops and more money, and, in the summer of 1743, the king joined his British and Hanoverian army in Germany. At the battle of Dettingen, on the

War of the
Austrian
Succession
1741-48

Main, his troops were hard pressed by the French, when George, whose horse had run away, dismounted, drew his sword, put himself at the head of his right wing, and exclaimed "Now, boys,—now for the honour of England, fire, and behave bravely, and the French will soon run" And the determined little man did make the French run, and helped to win the victory This was the last time a king of England was ever under fire—Two years later, in 1745, George's second son, the Duke of Cumberland, was defeated by Marshal Saxe at Fontenoy in Belgium—the only victory won by the French in the reign of Louis XV Peace was made, and this war put an end to, by the Treaty of Aix-la Chapelle in 1748

(i) At the Battle of Fontenoy, "the Duke of Cumberland formed a column of fourteen thousand British infantry, thirty or forty abreast, and, with measured tread, regardless of every natural obstacle, undismayed by the cannonade left and right which mowed down their ranks, this terrible column strode on through the enemy's lines, carrying all before them"

(ii) The advance of the British column at Fontenoy is one of the most celebrated events in the history of the British Army "It was a noble precursor of the heroic madness of Balilava."

5 "The Forty-Five"—Early in the war of the Austrian Succession, the French Government had, by way of diversion, invited to France Charles Edward—the young Pretender, or "Bonnie Prince Charlie" of the Jacobite songs—and had planned an invasion of England which he was to lead. Charles landed in the Rebellion in Scotland Highlands, and quickly gathered a number of the clans 1745 around him At Perth he had himself proclaimed Regent of Scotland for his father, James VIII Thence he marched to Edinburgh, took up his abode at Holyrood Palace, held receptions there, and conquered all hearts by the amiability of his manners and the winning charm of his courtesy—Sir John Cope was in command of the Government troops, then lying at Prestonpans, a village a few miles east of Edinburgh In the early morning, just as the sun rose, Prince Charles's Highlanders attacked Sir John's troops, fired, threw down their muskets, and, grasping their broad-swords, poured down upon the astonished line "with a swiftness not to be conceived" The Royalist soldiers turned and fled, and in six minutes it was all over The dragoons, with Sir John Cope in the midst of them, fled to Berwick, where Lord Mark Kerr, an old Marlborough veteran, received him with the com-

The Battle
of Preston-
pans
1745

plimentary remark, "that he believed him to be the first general that had ever brought news of his own defeat"

(i) One of Prince Charlie's Highland friends discountenanced the attempt at an insurrection with means so small, and urged him to go back home "I am come home, sir," replied the Prince

(ii) When the Prince was trying to persuade two Highland gentlemen to join him, he observed a young man near who seemed very uneasy His colour came and went, his eyes sparkled with fire he moved about on his feet, and now and then grasped the hilt of his sword Charles turned suddenly to him and said, "Will you not give me your aid? "I will, I will, said the young man "though no other man in the Highlands should draw a sword, I am ready to die for you" His name was Ranald MacDonald

6 The Pretender's March into England—The Pretender's forces had now increased to about six thousand men, of whom five hundred were cavalry, and he formed the daring resolution of marching upon London. He thought England would everywhere rise in his favour No sign of an English rising met his eyes as he marched through Penrith, Kendal, and Lancaster, at Preston—always a Conservative town—he obtained a few recruits, Manchester was "taken" by "a sergeant, a drummer, and a girl," and a small regiment of Manchester recruits was formed London was stricken with panic, there was a run upon the Bank of England, which had to take to paying cheques in sixpences,¹ and the king sent his jewels to a vessel in the Thames The prince's troops reached Derby on the 4th of December,—a day known in London as ^{Prince Charles} "Black Friday,"—but beyond Derby they did not march ^{at Derby} a step ¹⁷⁴⁵ A council of officers was called, it was found that thirty thousand men lay between them and London, and it was resolved to march back into Scotland, and try to form a separate Stuart kingdom there

(i) "In every place we passed through," writes a Scotchman in the army of Prince Charles, "we found the English very ill-disposed towards us, except at Manchester, where there appeared some remains of attachment to the House of Stuart."

(ii) "The Highlanders in the streets of Derby were animated to the highest pitch of enthusiasm. They were to be seen, during the whole day, in crowds before the shops of the cutlers, quarrelling about who should be the first to sharpen and give a proper edge to their swords —KNIGHT

¹ For the purpose of gaining time, and so preventing the bank from breaking or 'stopping payment'

7 **The Pretender's Retreat**—With heavy hearts, and sullen silent rage and depressed looks, the Highlanders and the Prince began to retrace their steps. On the 23d of December they again crossed the Border, and no Englishman could point to a single act of plunder or disorder during their long march of six hundred miles. Indeed, so scrupulous had they been on this point, that, when they came within sight of Oxenfoord Castle—the seat of the hated Earl of Stair, who had ordered the Glencoe massacre,—the Glencoe men claimed it as their right to mount guard over the castle and to save it from injury, and they did. They met General Hayley at Falkirk, and defeated him, and then they marched on towards Inverness. The Duke of Cumberland, the second son of George the Second, came over from the Continent, and was sent after them with an army more than twice as large.

8 **Culloden**—The two armies met on Culloden Moor. The Prince's troops were starving and exhausted with marching, and they had no cannon. Through hail-storms of grape and shot the Highlanders made their way, but, though they broke through the first line, the second and third, which had reserved their fire, received them with volleys so heavy and well-sustained that they were sent reeling back in broken and disordered ranks. The contest was soon over, and Prince Charles had to flee from the field. "This battle, which conclusively ended a dynastic contest of fifty-seven years, did not continue for fifty-seven minutes"—The Duke of Cumberland, whom the Scotch nicknamed the Butcher, allowed the wounded to be murdered, "knocked on the head" as they lay on the ground, in one part of the field they were collected into two heaps, and a six-pounder fired into each heap, and thirty-two persons, who had taken refuge in a small hut, were burnt to death next day in the building.

(i) **The Battle of Culloden** was lost partly in consequence of the conduct of the Clan MacDonald. "This clan, which had been placed in the left wing, and were offended, to use the words of one of their officers, at not having this day 'the right hand in battle—the honour which Robert the Bruce bestowed upon Angus Mac Donald, Lord of the Isles—refused to make an onset. Their chief fell, exclaiming, 'My God' have the children of my clan forsaken me?'"—KNIGHT

(ii) "William of Cumberland was during many years one of the most unpopular men in England

9 The Flight of Prince Charlie—A reward of £30,000 was put upon the head of the young Chevalier, but no one, however poor, was found willing to betray the prince. After suffering terrible hardships, living for several weeks with freebooters in a cave, being hunted from place to place and from island to island of the Hebrides by soldiers, attended by the loving devotion of a Highland lady called Flora Macdonald, he at last made his way in a French ship to the coast of Brittany. His after life was a misery and a wreck. Driven from France, in accordance with a stipulation of the Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, which merely confirmed an article of the Treaty of Utrecht, he wandered about the Continent seeking help towards another invasion, and gradually sinking into habits of confirmed drunkenness. He died in 1788, and with his younger brother, Henry Benedict Stuart, Cardinal York, who died in 1807, went out of existence the line of the unfortunate and self-blinded Stuarts.

For their share in this insurrection of 1745, about eighty persons were put to death, among them the Earl of Kilmarnock, Lord Lovat, Lord Balmerino, and Charles Ratcliffe, the brother of the unfortunate Earl of Derwentwater, who himself suffered in 1715.

10 Wolfe in Canada—The French held Canada in North America, while all to the south of St. Lawrence and the Great Lakes was in the hands of the English. But the Marquis Duquesne, a new governor, began in 1752 a new policy, the object of which was to seize the Mississippi and the country east and west of it, and to confine the English within the narrow strip of land which lies between the Alleghanies and the Atlantic. The French war began in 1756 with the taking of Minorca by the French, and Admiral Byng, who was sent to its relief, declined to fight the French fleet. For this he was tried the year after by court-martial, and shot upon the quarter-deck of his own vessel. The English were hard pressed in America, when William Pitt, "the Great Commoner," who was then Secretary of State, sent out a mean-looking little man, General Wolfe, with eight thousand men to Quebec. Wolfe was only thirty-three, he had entered the army at the age of fourteen, and had seen a great deal of service, he was well and sickly in frame, but he had sound sense, fiery energy, and great resource. Quebec stands on a high table-land, which was thoroughly guarded by French troops, very

watchful, and admirably disciplined, and only one spot was left without a guard, as it was considered impossible to scale that part of the cliff. But Wolfe, who did not believe in the word impossible, sent his men up that almost perpendicular cliff during the night, and they struggled up in single file by the help of boughs and stumps of trees, or holding on to the corner of a rock. When day broke, a compact army stood, as if by magic, on the heights of Abraham, the high table-land of Quebec. The French general, the Marquis Montcalm, could not believe the news. Wolfe drew up his little army on

Capture of Quebec 1759. the plateau, and told them not to fire till they saw the whites of the Frenchmen's eyes. Almost at the commencement of the action he received a shot in the wrist, but tied it up with his handkerchief. He put himself at the head of his grenadiers,¹ when another ball struck him in a vital part. He still pressed on. A third ball hit him in the breast, and he fell. He was carried to the rear, and, while he lay there, an officer exclaimed, "They run." "Who run?" asked the dying man, raising himself on his elbow. "The enemy, the enemy." "Thank God, I am satisfied,"

Canada in British hands 1760 said Wolfe, and fell back dead.—The French general died next morning, and the fortress capitulated on the 18th of September 1760, and within a year the whole of the French colony of Canada was in the hands of the British.

(i) "In breaking through the line with which France had striven to check the westward advance of the English colonists, Pitt had unconsciously changed the history of the world.—GREEN.

(ii) "Foremost among those who scaled the cliff was one of the new Highland regiments"—raised according to the plan for the Pacification of the Highlands.

✓/11 **The Seven Years' War**—Frederick the Great of Prussia still held Silesia, France, Russia, and Poland were on the side of Maria Theresa, but George II, who feared for his Hanoverian dominions, made an alliance with Frederick. Thus was England drawn into the Seven Years' War. The English considered themselves as enslaved to Hanover, and the man they looked to for help, William Pitt, was too much disliked by the king to be long in power. "I am sure," he said to himself, "that I can save this country, and that no one else can." He was again accepted as

¹ Men who march in front of a regiment armed with *grenades* or small bombshells. The grenades are now out of use but the name remains.

minister by the king in 1757, he pushed on the war with vigour, successes both by sea and land were quickly gained, the French were beaten at Minden in 1759 by British and Hanoverian troops, and Admiral Hawke completely destroyed the French fleet in the Bay of Quiberon, on the coast of Brittany. The constant success of his schemes raised Pitt to the highest summit of power. No one had the courage to oppose him, his power over the House of Commons was absolute, and the members were always ready to vote him as much money as he asked for.

12 India—The rich and extensive peninsula of Hindustan was ruled over at this time by native princes, but here and there were colonies founded by the English, the French, the Dutch, and the Portuguese. The East India Companies of the English and the French were, however, by far the strongest among the European powers. In fact, the English Company was almost a sovereign power, it had an army, judges, and law courts, subjects, and the power of making alliances with Indian princes, and, above all, it had a monopoly of trade. Dupleix, the governor of Pondicherry—then the central station of the French—had formed the scheme of conquering the whole of India for France, and, as one means towards that end, he set about intriguing with the native princes against the English. But he found a strong and terrible rival in Robert Clive, a young Englishman who had entered the East India Company's service as a clerk, but had joined their army and distinguished himself greatly by his brilliant courage and fertile resource. Clive broke the power of the French, made himself master of the Carnatic,¹ and took full possession of Bengal by his splendid victory of Plassey on the 23d of June 1757. The Nabob of Bengal was Surajah-ad-Dowlah, a boyish tyrant, of a character fiendish and cruel even for India, who had the year before taken the English settlement at Calcutta. By his orders one hundred and forty-six prisoners were driven at the point of the bayonet into a room twenty feet square, with no inlet for air except two small gratings, and left there without water for the whole of an Indian summer night to endure the tortures of thirst, and to die of suffocation. When the door was opened in the morning, only twenty-three wretched persons

The Battle
of Plassey
1757.

The Black
Hole of
Calcutta
1756.

¹ The Carnatic is a vast district in India—south west of Madras

were alive, and these tottered or were lifted out of their cage—known in history as “The Black Hole of Calcutta”—more like corpses than living beings. This terrible cruelty was fully avenged by Clive in the Battle of Plassey. Though he had only about three thousand men, of whom only eight hundred were British troops, he put to flight and utter rout an army of sixty thousand men and fifty cannon, with a loss on his own side of only twenty white men and fifty sepoys¹

(i) “With the victory of Plassey began in fact the Empire of England in the East.”
—GREEN

(ii) Pitt called Clive “a heaven born general”, and Macaulay says of him that he was “not a man to do anything by halves”

13 Death of George II—In the midst of all these successes, the reign of George II came suddenly to a close on the 25th of October 1760. The king had risen at his usual hour of six, had taken his cup of chocolate, and had been left by his attendants, when from the next room a heavy fall was heard, and then a deep groan. When they went in, they found the old man dead. He had died of rupture of the heart. He was seventy-seven. He had always been a methodical, hard-working man, with a fixed time for every duty,—and a large share of his time went to the business of the State,—very parsimonious, stubborn, and passionate, but brave and persevering

“His habits were methodical to a point of mechanical regularity that drove those who had to live with him almost mad. His drives in the afternoon, his commerce and backgammon at night, his *leves* and audiences in the morning, were all fixed to the instant, so that, as the weary courtiers complained, with an almanack for the day of the week and a watch for the hour of the day, everybody would know precisely what point in the mill horse track the Court was passing.”—MORLEY

“Whenever we hear of dapper George at war it is certain that he demeaned himself like a little man of valour. At Dettingen his horse ran away with him and with difficulty was stopped from carrying him into the enemy’s lines. The king dismounting from the fiery quadruped said bravely: ‘Now I know I shall not run away’ and placed himself at the head of the foot, drew his sword and calling out to his own men to come on in bad English but with the most famous pluck and spirit. In 45 when the Pretender was at Derby, and many people began to look pale the king never lost his courage—not he. ‘Pooh! don’t talk to me that stuff!’ he said, like a gallant little prince as he was.”—THACKERAY

14 The Work of Parliament—George II’s First Parliament met in 1727 under the administration of Lord Townshend and Sir Robert Walpole, but produced no bill of any importance.—The Second Parliament met in 1728, with Walpole at the head of the Government. It passed an important act—the Act of Indemnity,

¹ Sepoys = native soldiers under the command of British officers

which enabled Nonconformists to hold office. It passed an Act even more important from its influence on social affairs and the more speedy and sure distribution of justice—the act which permitted all law proceedings to be written out in English instead of in the old crabbed and sometimes quite inadequate "Law-Latin"—The Third Parliament met in 1735, and sat for six years, but its only performance worth notice was the passing of the Gin Act.—The Fourth Parliament met in 1741. Walpole was defeated on the question of a disputed election, and resigned all his offices. Lord Wilmington came into power. He was quickly succeeded by Henry Pelham, who brought in and passed the Place Bill—a measure of the highest importance for the purity of administration, as it excluded from the House of Commons clerks and officers of the public departments, persons who were generally mere creatures of the court, and who voted just as they were bid. In 1744 Pelham formed the "Broad Bottom Administration," which received this name from the fact that it included men from every section of the great Whig Party.—The Fifth Parliament met in 1747, and passed an Act for the Pacification of the Highlands. This act had the very salutary effect of putting an end once for all to the chronic condition of petty warfare in which the Celtic population of the Highlands lived. It also passed an act for the Reformation of the Calendar, by which "eleven days were dropped" between the 2d and the 14th September 1752.—The Sixth Parliament, which met in the year 1754, had, as Prime Ministers, the Duke of Devonshire and the Duke of Newcastle (the brother of Henry Pelham, who died in 1754), but William Pitt was the leading spirit in both administrations. In 1757 Pitt brought in and carried a bill for the establishment of a National Militia, and he further made use of the opportunity given him by this bill to enrol regiments from the Highlands, and thus to enlist on the side of the existing government and dynasty the awe-ready loyalty of the Highland people of Scotland.

1 (i) The Act of Indemnity was for those who had broken the Test and Corporation Acts. It was an annual bill. Walpole was not yet strong enough to make it permanent.

(ii) The Gin Act put a duty of 20s. on each gallon of gin, and fixed the annual licence of the retailer at £50. It proved to be an excellent source of income to the Government.

(iii) The question of a disputed election came, at this time, before the House of

Commons itself, sitting as a Committee, and such questions were always fought on party lines. Hence, if the government happened to be defeated on an election question, the Ministry had to resign

✓(14) The Scottish Highlanders were obliged (a) to give up their arms, (b) to ~~cease~~ wearing their national dress, and (c) the rule and jurisdiction of the Highland chief over their clans was taken away and compensation granted them.

Even in peace, the power of ravaging the estates of a neighbour or of the Lowlands, by letting loose upon them troops of bloodthirsty kennelled like blood hounds in some obscure valley till their services were required gave to every petty chieftain the means of spreading robbery and desolation through the country at his pleasure"—Sir W. Scott

✓(15) Pitt had always opposed the hiring of Hanoverian and Hessian troops. (Then troops were bought and sold like cattle by their sovereign masters and dukes) George II dismissed Pitt for this, but, as Newcastle could not form a ministry without Pitt George was obliged to receive him. Pitt raised 30,000 men, and got some of his very best regiments from the Highlands

15 Great Men —In the early part of George II's reign, and till the death of Queen Caroline, Walpole was by far the most powerful statesman in the kingdom. He and Queen Caroline directed the whole policy of the country. After him, Henry Pelham was the ablest Prime Minister, and, among the younger men who were destined to make their mark in the history of England, both during this and the following reign, by far the most distinguished were William Pitt (afterwards Earl of Chatham, and often called "The Elder Pitt") and Charles James Fox. Bolingbroke and Pulteney were prominent and able leaders of the Opposition. In war at home, Prince Charles Edward and William, Duke of Cumberland, showed ability on the two opposite sides, while at sea, Anson and Rodney upheld the fame of the British flag. Clive in India and Wolfe in Canada showed consummate military ability, and both widened and strengthened the bounds of the growing British empire. In the field of religion, John Wesley and Charles Wesley were the leaders and inspirers of a most zealous and thoughtful body within the Church of England, though it afterwards developed into the Methodist body without.

(1) "The miserable incapacity of the Duke of Newcastle only called to the front the genius of William Pitt. 'Mr Pitt does everything' wrote Horace Walpole, 'and the Duke gives everything.' 'No man said a soldier of the time, 'ever entered Mr Pitt's closet who did not feel himself braver when he came out than when he went in.' Ill combined as were his earlier expeditions, many as were his failures, he roused a temper in the nation at large which made ultimate defeat impossible. The groundwork of Pitt's character was an intense and passionate pride but it was a pride which kept him from stooping to the level of the men who had so long held England in their hands. He was the first statesman since the Restoration who set the example of a purely public spirit. Keen as was his love of power, no man ever

refused office so often, or accepted it with so strict a regard to the principles he professed 'I will not go to Court,' he replied to an offer which was made him, 'if I may not bring the Constitution with me'—GREEN

'If you and I had been alive then and strolling down Milsom Street (Bath)—hush! we should have taken our hats off as an awful long lean gaunt figure swathed in flannels pushed by in its chair, and a livid face looked out from the window—great fierce eyes staring from under a bushy powdered wig a terrible form a terrible Roman nose—and we whisper to one another, There he is! There is the great Commoner! There is Mr Pitt!—THACKERAY (THE FOUR GEORGES)'

(ii) In the two administrations of 1757, though the Duke of Devonshire, and after him the Duke of Newcastle, was Prime Minister, Pitt, who held one of the offices of Secretary of State, was the real moving power "This first administration of Chatham—the greatest and most glorious, perhaps, that England had ever yet known—was an administration not always, indeed, free from haste or error in its schemes, and no doubt owing its success in part to the favour of fortune and to the genius of generals, but still, after every allowance that can be justly required, an administration pre eminently strong at home and victorious abroad—an administration which even now is pointed at with equal applause by contending and opposite parties, eager to claim its principles as their own —MAHON

William Pitt, afterwards Earl of Chatham was called 'The Elder Pitt' to distinguish him from his son William who was called The Younger Pitt The Elder Pitt was also called The Great Commoner "because his strength lay not in Parliament but in the support of the people of England. It is the people who have sent me here, Pitt once said at a Cabinet Meeting when the Peers in the Cabinet were opposing his measures

16 Social Facts—Art revived during this reign in England, and the noble grace and sweet humanity of Sir Joshua Reynolds still live to charm us in his pictures The strong English sense of William Hogarth has depicted for us the darker and grosser sides of life in London with a tragic and realistic power that can never cease to attract and to astonish.—The taste for literature continued to grow, and in 1731, the Gentleman's Magazine—a monthly journal which is still in existence—began to appear Manufactures, too, were growing in importance—especially those of silk and woollens Cotton, which was destined to change the very landscape of the north of England, began to become known Metal works were established in Birmingham and Sheffield, and silver-plated goods were commonly known under the name of Sheffield plate The discovery, in 1740, that iron could be worked with common coal instead of—as before—with charcoal only, opened wide the doors for industry, enterprise, and wealth Agriculture was improving in many directions When Lord Townshend left the ministry in 1730, he set to work to grow turnips, and his example was widely followed Before his time, a field had to lie fallow for a year after a crop of wheat, from his time, with the introduction of turnips and other root-crops, rotation in agriculture became possible.

SHORT CHRONOLOGY AND SUMMARY OF GEORGE II's REIGN

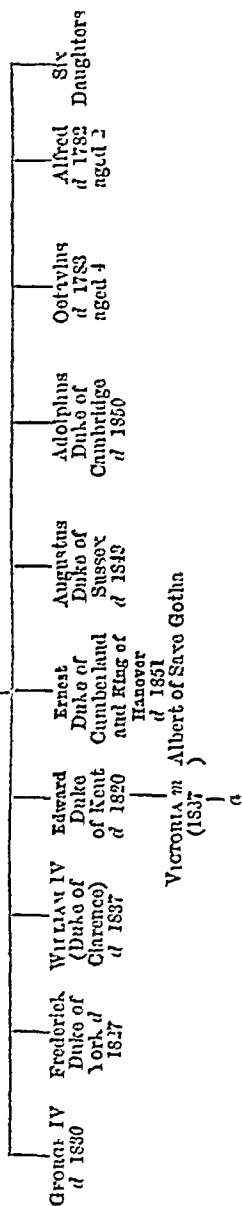
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| <p>1727 Accession of George II</p> <p>1730 Rise of Methodism under John and Charles Wesley and George Whitfield.</p> <p>1731. (a) England guarantees the 'Pragmatic Sanction'
(b) Use of Latin in our Law pleadings and Statute-Books abolished.</p> <p>1736 Porteous Riots in Edinburgh.</p> <p>1737 (a) The Prince of Wales heads the opposition to Walpole
(b) Death of Queen Caroline</p> <p>1738 'Jenkins's Ear'</p> <p>1739 War with Spain.</p> <p>1742 Walpole resigns.
(a) Lord Wilmington Prime Minister
(b) Walpole goes to the House of Lords</p> <p>1743 Battle of Dettingen
Last appearance of a king of England on the field of battle</p> <p>1744. Pelham Prime Minister
(a) War with France.
(b) The Broad Bottom Administration
(c) Invading fleet of the 'Young Pretender' wrecked.
(d) The Battle of Fontenoy</p> <p>1745 "The Forty Five"
(a) Battle of Prestonpans.
(b) Prince Charles reaches Derby</p> | <p>(c) Prince Charles retreats to Scotland</p> <p>1746 Battle of Falkirk
Battle of Culloden.
(a) Pitt Paymaster of the Forces
(b) Fox Secretary of War</p> <p>1748 Treaty of Aix la Chapelle puts an end to the War of the Austrian Succession</p> <p>1750 Consolidation of various kinds of stock into the "Three Per Cents."</p> <p>1751. (a) Death of Frederick, Prince of Wales
(b) New Style introduced.</p> <p>1753 British Museum begun.</p> <p>1754 Duke of Newcastle Prime Minister</p> <p>1756 Beginning of the Seven Years War with France
(a) Admiral Byng declines to fight at Minorca.
(b) Duke of Devonshire Prime Minister with Pitt as the real head.</p> <p>1757 (a) Byng shot.
(b) Pitt dismissed and re appointed</p> <p>1758 Large subsidy to Prussia.</p> <p>1759 Capture of Quebec by Wolfe
Battle of Minden</p> <p>1760 Death of George II.</p> |
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IMPORTANT CONTEMPORARY EVENTS

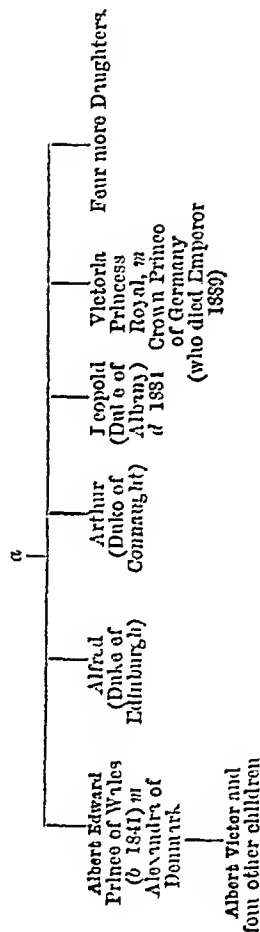
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| <p>1740 (a) Accession of Maria Theresa to the throne of Austria
(b) Accession of Frederick the Great to the throne of Prussia</p> <p>1741. War of the Austrian Succession.</p> <p>1751 Clive repulses the French at Arcot</p> <p>1754. Fort Duquesne on the Ohio
War between the English and the French colonists</p> | <p>1756 The Seven Years War
Alliance between England and Prussia.
The Black Hole of Calcutta.</p> <p>1757 Battle of Plassey</p> <p>1758 Taking of Fort Duquesne</p> <p>1759 Capture of Quebec</p> <p>1760 Battle of Wandewash.
Fall of French power in India
Canada seized by the British.</p> |
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GEORGE THE THIRD'S FAMILY

GEORGE III ^m CHARLOTTE of MECKLENBURG STRELITZ



(i) Of the six daughters, the eldest, Charlotte, married the King of Wirtemberg. The third became Princess of Hesse Homburg.
 (ii) William IV was not only King of Great Britain and Ireland, he was also King of Hanover. On his death, as a woman could not succeed to the Hanoverian Crown, the succession passed to the fifth son, Ernest, Duke of Cumberland, and England was saved by this from further embroilment in the political affairs of Germany.



CHAPTER III

GEORGE THE THIRD

Born 1738 Succeeded (at the age of 22) in 1760 Died 1820
Reigned 60 years

GEORGE III was the eldest son of Frederick, Prince of Wales (son of George II and Augusta of Saxe Gotha). He was born in Norfolk House, St. James's Square, London. The young prince passed his youth among women and pages, kept by his mother in complete ignorance of the outside world. He married the Princess Charlotte, sister of the reigning duke of Mecklenburg Strelitz. They had fifteen children—nine sons and six daughters. George III died in 1820—six days after the death of his fourth son, Edward, Duke of Kent, the father of Queen Victoria. George was succeeded by his eldest son, George IV and next by his third son, William, Duke of Clarence.

CHIEF PRIME MINISTERS WILLIAM PITT (Earl of Chatham), Earl of Bute, George Grenville, the Marquis of Rockingham, Duke of Grafton, Lord North, WILLIAM PITT (the younger)

CONTEMPORARY SOVEREIGNS

FRANCE	GERMANY (Emperor of)	SPAIN
LOUIS XV to 1774	FRANCIS I to 1765	CHARLES III to 1788.
LOUIS XVI deposed 1792.	JOSEPH II to 1790	CHARLES IV to 1808
Republic to 1799	LEOPOLD II to 1792	FERDINAND VII deposed 1808
NAPOLEON I Consul to 1804	FRANCIS II to 1804 (End of the Holy Roman Empire in Germany)	JOSEPH BUONAPARTE to 1814
NAPOLEON EMPEROR to 1815		FERDINAND VII to 1833
LOUIS XVIII King to 1824		

1 George III, 1760-1820 —George III was only two and twenty when he succeeded his grandfather on the throne of England. He

was good-looking, amiable in manners, pure in character, and full of good intentions; and it made him very welcome to the English people that he was "a born Englishman." In his first speech to Parliament, he said that "he gloried in the name of Briton." But he had been poorly educated, his natural taste led him to call Shakespeare "wretched stuff", and he was as obstinate as he was narrow-minded. He hated the great mind and noble character of Pitt, the Marquis of Bute had been his tutor, and the Marquis of Bute he made his Prime Minister. His mother had constantly exhorted him in his youth to have his own way when he came to the throne, "George," she kept saying,—“George, be a king.” His idea was, like Charles I., to rule the people for their own good, but entirely by his own will, and he accordingly made up his mind to rule, in spite of ministers, Parliament, and people,—a mode of government which in twenty years lost England the great and wealthy colonies of America. He was a good man, but he was not a good king. About a year after his accession, he married a bright, lively, and shrewd young woman, the Princess Charlotte of Mecklenburg-Strelitz.

(i) "‘George, be a king!’ were the words which his mother was for ever croaking in the ears of her son and a king the simple, stubborn, affectionate, bigoted man tried to be. He did his best, he worked according to his lights, what virtue he knew, he tried to practise, what knowledge he could master, he strove to acquire. He was for ever drawing maps, for example, and learned geography with no small care and industry. He knew all about the family histories and genealogies of his gentry. He knew the whole ‘Army List’ and all the facings, and the exact number of the buttons, and all the tags and laces, and the cut of all the cocked hats, pig-tails and gaiters in his army. —THACKERAY

"‘Tahn orshine the king rode every day for hours, poked his red face into hundreds of cottages round about, and showed that shovel hat and Windsor uniform to farmers to pig boys to old women making apple dumplings to all sorts of people, gentle and simple. On one occasion he played the part of King Alfred, and turned a piece of meat with a string at a cottager’s house. When the old woman came home she found a paper with an enclosure of money, and a note written by the royal pencil. Five guineas to buy a Jack.’ —THACKERAY

(ii) "The influence of Bute was recognised in the popular cry of ‘No Scotch favourites!’ and the uncertainty of the final preponderance of the rivals for power (the Earl of Bute, the Duke of Newcastle, and William Pitt) was expressed in the joking question whether the king would burn in his chamber Scotch coal, Newcastle coal, or Pitt-coal. —KILGOUR

2 The Peace of Paris and John Wilkes —The kings of France, Spain, and the Two Sicilies, all of them Bourbons, had entered into an agreement which was known as the "Family Compact," for the purpose of mutual defence. War was declared against them by

England, Havannah in the West and Manilla in the East Indies were captured, but Lord Bute made haste in 1763 to patch up a peace, by which England was to keep Canada and some islands in the West Indies, and to receive Minorca and Florida from Spain. In the king's speech to Parliament this peace was styled "honourable and beneficial." But a member of Parliament, called John Wilkes, who was also the editor of a newspaper known as the *North Briton*, denounced the ministers for having in this statement "put a lie into the mouth of the king." The Government made up their minds to prosecute Wilkes, and this was the beginning of a contest between the Government and the popular party, which lasted for eleven years—in which Wilkes, a bold, bad man, had nevertheless the right on his side, and gained the victory. Wilkes was arrested and imprisoned, but he forced the Secretary of State to pay £1000 for his illegal arrest, was returned to Parliament three times by the county of Middlesex, and as often rejected by the House, was made Alderman, Sheriff, and, lastly, Mayor of London, and at length compelled the Parliament to allow him to take his seat.

(1) The Seven Years War had cost us £60,000,000. But Pitt boasted that there were two things which ought to be regarded as offsets against this: (a) that, under his administration, commerce had flourished in company with war, and (b) the raising in England of "that spirit which has made us what we are."

(ii) Wilkes was arrested under a "General Warrant"—that is, a warrant in which no name is mentioned, and thus the officers can arrest any one whom they suspect. Long debates on the legality of such warrants were carried on in the House: one debate lasted eleven hours, another, seventeen. The Whigs hunted up votes wherever they could find them. "You would have laughed," says Horace Walpole (son of Sir Robert), "to see the spectres produced on both sides. Votes were brought down in flannels and blankets till the floor of the House looked like the pool of Bethesda."

3 The State of Parliament—It was not that the people were fond of Wilkes, but that he represented a cause and a hope—the hope that Parliament would one day really represent the British people. As it was, the House of Commons, which excluded all reporters, sat with closed doors, and possessing boundless authority, represented only itself. Seats were bought and sold in the open market, as much as £4000 being frequently given for one, and, in the House itself, votes were bought and sold for money, for titles, or for preferment. An office was opened at the Treasury for the bribery of Members,

and £25,000 are said to have been spent upon procuring votes in a single day. Pitt himself declared that the House represented not the nation, but "ruined towns, noble families, wealthy individuals, and foreign potentates." Even George III himself used his royal revenue to purchase seats and to buy votes. Not one person in fifty throughout the kingdom was in possession of the franchise.

(i) Chatham said "It is not in the little dependent boroughs, it is in the great cities and counties that the strength and vigour of the Constitution resides, and by them alone will the Constitution be honestly and firmly defended."

(ii) The price for a small borough in the General Election of 1768 was £4000. Oxford offered to sell its if for £7500—this money to be used to liquidate the Corporation Debt, the Mayor and Aldermen were thrown into prison, but they went on with their bargaining notwithstanding.

4 The American War of Independence (i)—Our American colonies had been during this reign growing in wealth, power, and population. They contained about two millions and a half of people—a people with much of the stubbornness, more than the pride, and all of the self-respect of Englishmen, and most of the colonies were larger than many of the kingdoms of Western Europe. The New England States had been founded by the Puritans, the Carolinas, Virginia (which was originally founded by Raleigh), and Maryland in the south, by the exiled Cavaliers and Roman Catholics, and the great central States of Pennsylvania and New York by the Quakers and the Dutch. Each colony had a governor appointed by the Crown, and a separate charter—The Government had attempted to tax these colonies in order to defray in part the cost of protecting them, but the colonists had long advocated and had come to believe in the doctrine that they ought not to be taxed unless they were represented in Parliament. Representation with taxation was their political creed, "No taxation without representation," their motto and their cry. If they could not buy goods without being taxed, they would not buy them at all. The "Sons of Liberty" would wear no broadcloth, and "the Daughters of Liberty" would drink no tea if that tea had to pay a duty of threepence a pound. The first attempt to tax them was contained in the Stamp Act, but the colonists declared they would buy no stamped paper. They erected gallows and kindled bonfires beside them, brought the Commissioners of Stamps under these gallows, burnt the stamps

in the fires, and gave the Commissioners their choice of resigning or of swinging from the "fatal tree" The Stamp Act was repealed, and some small duties put in its place. These again were withdrawn, but a small duty of threepence a pound was levied on tea—not for the purpose of raising a revenue, but simply by way of asserting the supreme right of the British Government. But some forty or fifty Bostonians, dressed in paint and feathers as Mohawk Indians, went on board the tea-ships lying in Boston harbour and emptied every ounce of tea into the water. In consequence of "the Boston tea-party," as it was called, the city lost her charter, her harbour was closed, and the custom-house was transferred to Salem.

(i) The difficulties of the American colonists were (a) They were not allowed to buy anything except from the mother-country (b) Their exports to England were smaller than their imports from England—hence they were always in debt to us (c) They had been in the habit of trading with the West Indies and the Spanish colonies of South America—against the law of Spain, and Grenville regarded this as smuggling and stopped it (d) Thus their trade being stopped, they were deprived of their means of paying their debts to us (e) The Paper money of the colonies was put down, and the colonists compelled to pay in ready money at the time when they had less than ever.

English men-of-war were employed in all the seas to stop this "smuggling", and English naval officers were turned into custom house officers of the king of Spain.

(ii) The case for the Government was (a) That all other countries taxed *their* colonies (b) That the war for which the colonists were asked to pay their quota had been for their benefit.

5 The American War of Independence (i) —General Gage was commander of the British forces in America. The colonists organised a militia, armed with every kind of weapon they could lay their hands on, but called, from their readiness to take the field on the shortest notice, "Minute Men." The Battle of Bunker's Hill was fought, and a determined struggle had begun. **1775** General Gage lost almost every action with which he had to do, by the consistent and undeviating application of the simple principle of being always a day too late, and General Burgoyne was sent out to supersede him.—The colonists started a navy also, Ezekiel Hopkins, a New England seaman, was put in command, and the flag he hoisted held the device of a pine-tree and a rattlesnake curled round it prepared to strike, with the daring motto "Don't tread upon me"—The great and good George Washington, a quiet country

gentleman of Virginia, was called by the Assembly of the colonists to be Commander-in-chief of their ragged and ill-fed army. After his death, his countrymen knew him to be of all Americans "the man first in war, first in peace, and first in the hearts of his fellow-countrymen." The war lasted seven years.

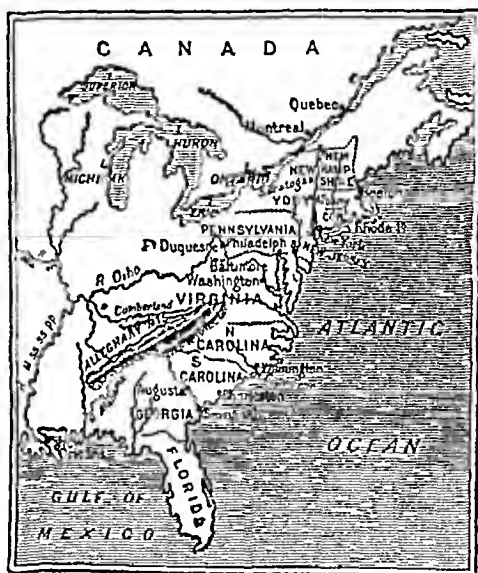
- (i) The first engagement was a slight skirmish at Lexington.
- (ii) George Washington was a strong, silent Englishman, calm and cool outwardly, but full of an enthusiasm which he could control in himself, and which he could also impart to others.

6 The United States—At first the Congress demanded only a redress of grievances, but, on the Fourth of July, 1776, they publicly de-

clared their independence of England, and formed themselves into a republic under the title of the United States of America. General Burgoyne was compelled to capitulate at

Saratoga, and Declaration of Independence July 4, 1776

France acknowledged the new Republic, while Spain lent it her secret aid. Holland and the Northern Powers—Russia, Prussia, Sweden, and Denmark—formed what they called an



The Original United States

Armed Neutrality, and thus England found herself standing alone in the world, and at war with the most powerful nations in it. For several months the united French and Spanish fleet of sixty ships rode masters of the English Channel. Lord Cornwallis was sent out to lead the British army, and in 1781 he surrendered to an army of Americans and Frenchmen at Yorktown. Thus settled the dispute, and even King George had to recognise the independence of the United States. It was the battle of the New against the Old, and even in the style of fighting this was seen. The English troops were moved forward in slow and formal fashion, as on parade, halted every few minutes, and

had their ranks dressed with the utmost exactness, while all the time from behind wall, and tree, and turf, and hillock was pouring in on them a deadly hail of shot from the ragged riflemen of the "Continental army" Thus the Continentals picked off the "Britishers" by scores, and escaped themselves without a scratch

(i) So strong was the feeling in favour of remaining joined to the Mother Country, that the Declaration of Independence was only carried by a majority of one. Even this majority was got by Dickinson, the author of the "Letters of a Pennsylvanian Farmer," consenting to withdraw

(ii) George III when receiving the first American ambassador, said "I will be very frank with you I was the last to conform to the separation, but the separation having been made, and having become inevitable, I have always said, as I say now, that I would be the first to meet the friendship of the United States as an Independent Power Let the circumstances of language, religion, and blood have their full effect."

(iii) The original United States were 13 in number

7 The No-Popery Riots, 1780—An Act had been carried through Parliament which abolished the penal laws hitherto in force against the Catholics, and this seems to have made the enthusiastic Protestants of Scotland angry and suspicious The feeling spread into England. The leader of the movement in London was Lord George Gordon, a half-crazy member of Parliament, who led his followers—to the number of about sixty thousand—into Palace Yard, to the very door of the House of Commons He would have led them into the House, but Colonel Gordon, a near relation of his own, threatened to plunge his sword into his body if he should attempt anything of the kind. London was in the hands of the mob for nearly a week, it was on fire in thirty-six places Catholic chapels were sacked and burnt, the shops of Catholic tradesmen were pillaged, and the houses of those known to be favourable to the Catholics were broken into and gutted. Newgate was burnt down, and the prisoners released, the Bank of England was attacked, the house of the Chief Justice, Lord Mansfield, was gutted, and the contents of his splendid law-library thrown into the flames, and society seemed wrecked and given up to the lowest characters and the most villainous criminals No one was safe who did not chalk "No Popery" on his doors and wear a blue cockade At length the king took vigorous action, the rioters were attacked in the streets, and about four hundred shot,

Gordon
Riots
1780

Lord George was thrown into the Tower, and many of his followers were tried and put to death.

(1) The lobby of the House of Commons was filled with a furious mob. Lord George actually pointed out to the mob for vengeance those members who were favourable to the Catholic claims. At length, Colonel Gordon, a cousin of his own, went up to him and said "My Lord, do you intend to bring your rascally adherents into the House of Commons? If you do, the first man of them that enters, I will plunge my sword not into him, but into your body!"

(2) Lord George Gordon was acquitted. He was converted to Judaism, and died—a Jew—of the gaol fever caught in Newgate, into which he had been thrown for belling the Queen of France.

(3) There is a brilliant and most vivid account of the Gordon Riots in Dickens's *Leaves of Flange*.

8 British Successes—It was only in America that the English Government met with defeat. General Elliot held Gibraltar against the Spaniards and French during a siege of three years and seven months, in which he drove off the sea attack by red-hot shot. Rodney gained a brilliant victory over the French fleet in the West Indies ^{Seymour} in 1782; and a French invasion of Jersey was gallantly ^{Gibraltar} beaten back by Major Pierson, a young English officer, who ¹⁷⁸²⁻⁵ fell in the moment of victory. Peace between France and England, and between the United States and England, was signed in 1783, and Minorca and Florida were handed back to Spain, while Canada, Nova Scotia, Newfoundland, and the country round Hudson's Bay were left as part of the British Empire.

(1) The French commander built ten immense floating batteries, with walls of iron 7 feet thick, shot-proof and bomb-proof, and he had altogether 500 guns. The English had only 160. Elliot, however, kept up a steady stream of red-hot shot on the floating batteries.

(2) Rodney for the first time employed the tactics which were afterwards used with success by Duncan, Howe, and Nelson. This was to fight at close quarters, and to break the enemy's line wherever the smallest opening appeared.

(3) The Peace was signed at Versailles. On the same day, the Treaty acknowledging the independence of the United States was signed by Great Britain at Paris.

9 Fox and Pitt—The two great statesmen of the day were William Pitt and Charles James Fox. Pitt was the second son of the "Great Commoner," who was afterwards created Earl of Chatham. He was Chancellor of the Exchequer at the age of three-and-twenty, "when other men have not left off cricket," and he was Prime

Minister at the age of twenty-four "He will be one of the first men in Parhament," said a member to Charles Fox, when Pitt had concluded his first speech in the House of Commons in 1781 "He is so already," was Fox's reply Pitt was the haughtiest of men, he never smiled, he cared nothing about ingratiating himself with others, but his eloquence held the House of Commons as with a chain, and he ruled England by his will. "His noble figure," says a great historian, "his flashing eye, his majestic voice, the fire and grandeur of his eloquence, gave him a sway over the House of Commons far greater than any other minister has possessed" Fox, on the other hand, the rival of Pitt, was a man of great ability and eloquence, of the most generous and kindly disposition, but a great gambler, and a boon companion of the unworthy and debauched Prince of Wales These two men were the leaders of the two great parties in the House,—Pitt of the Tories, and Fox of the Whigs Edmund Burke, the great political thinker and orator, was at first on the side of Fox, but these two eminent men were afterwards estranged from each other, and their friendship broken Pitt governed the country, from 1783, for eighteen years,—a much longer period of power than had been held by any minister since Walpole

William Pitt (the younger) was laid in Westminster Abbey in the grave of Chatham, his father "What grave," exclaimed Lord Wellesley, "contained such a father and such a son! What sepulchre embosoms the remains of so much human excellence and glory!

10 The French Revolution—The course of English politics was very strongly influenced by the beginning of a crisis, which even now, at the end of the nineteenth century, has not yet brought its results to a close, and which is generally known by the name of the French Revolution The nobility and clergy of France possessed enormous and unjust privileges, among others complete freedom from taxation, the poorer classes were wretched, starving, and oppressed, and the new republican ideas, which the French troops had brought back from America, began to ferment in the midst of French society The States-General, a body which had not met since the year 1614, was called together, and, like our own Long Parliament, it gradually absorbed the power of the Crown and its ministers In a short time the king, Louis XVI, was a prisoner, the state prison of the Bastille was

The French
Revolution
begins
1789

levelled with the ground, the privileges of the nobility and clergy abolished, and a Republic established. In England men's hearts leaped up at the news, and the greatest hopes were cherished of a new era and new happiness for the nations "How much," cried Fox, "is this the greatest event that ever happened in the world, and how much the best!" "Bliss was it in that dawn to be alive!" exclaimed Wordsworth in one of his poems, "but to be young was very heaven!" Then Louis and his queen, Marie Antoinette, were beheaded (in 1793) by the guillotine, a Reign of Terror began, in which about fourteen hundred persons were executed in five weeks, the Christian religion was formally abolished, and a war of classes and opinions raged all over France

✓ (i) The Republic was established on the 22d of September 1792, which was called "the Year One."

(ii) It was Burke's "Reflections on the French Revolution" that changed the current of public opinion in England. Burke had always had an abhorrence of abstractions in politics—such as the "Rights of Man,"—"Equality," etc., had always thought an aristocracy necessary and knowing how slowly institutions are built up and how easy it is to destroy them, had always felt a horror of innovations

(a) The equilibrium of the constitution," said Burke has something so delicate about it that the least displacement may destroy it. It is a difficult and dangerous matter even to touch so complicated a machine.

(b) Coleridge says 'The extravagantly false and flattering picture which Burke gave of the French nobility and hierarchy has always appeared to me the greatest defect of his, in so many respects invaluable work.'

(iii) There is a very vivid account of the horrors of the French Revolution in Dickens's *Tale of Two Cities*

11 War with France—Pitt was at first inclined to leave France to manage its own affairs, but the French leaders showed a strong desire to spread their principles by force of arms, and to make proselytes of other nations, and thus war broke out in 1793 between France and England. This war raged for twenty-two years, and gradually France found all Europe arrayed against it—Lord Howe gained the famous victory of the 1st of June 1794, over the French fleets off Ushant,—a victory in which the English did all they could to save the lives of their drowning enemies, although, only five days before, the French Government had proclaimed that no quarter was to be given to either Englishman or Hanoverian—In 1797, Sir John

Jervis with only fifteen sail of the line to the enemy's twenty-five, defeated, off Cape St Vincent, the united fleets of France and Spain, and in this action a thin, haggard little man, with the look and manner of an eager school-boy, called Commodore Horatio Nelson, took two ships and laid the foundation of the immortal fame of our greatest British sailor. In October of the same year, Admiral Duncan beat the Dutch off Camperdown. The Dutch had formed a Republic at the instigation and order of France—With all these victories, there was great discontent in the English navy. The sailors were dissatisfied with their pay, their food, their berths on board, and their management. A mutiny broke out in the Channel fleet at Spithead, which was quieted by Lord Howe, who came down to them with an Act securing them better wages and the king's pardon in his hands. A more terrible mutiny broke out at the Nore, which was not suppressed until the ringleaders had been arrested and hanged.

(i) "The battle of the first of June was useful to us beyond its immediate results. It gave confidence to the nation. It was afterwards said that if Nelson had been in the place of Howe, the probability is that the French would not have saved a single ship"—KING

(ii) "Nelson, on this day as on subsequent occasions, saw that an implicit regard to the orders of his superior officers would prevent the accomplishment of a great object. The signal was given to tack. He saw that, by disobeying the signal, he could prevent a junction between some of the separated ships, who were manœuvring for that purpose. He instantly wore, and was consequently brought into action with seven of the largest vessels of the Spanish fleet.

(iii) "Duncan took the bold resolve to pass through the Dutch line, and thus to place himself between the enemy and their own shores. Soon after noon every ship of the British fleet had broken the enemy's line and was hotly engaged. The coast was covered for miles with thousands of spectators"—KING

12 Coalitions against France—Any land operations undertaken by the English against the French had been generally unsuccessful, and Pitt now went to work with English money to aid the Continental powers and to form coalitions against France. The First Coalition was formed between England, Austria, Prussia, Spain, and Holland, in 1793—Nelson's great victory at the Nile enabled Pitt to form, in 1799, a Second Coalition against France, which was joined by England, Russia, Turkey, Austria, Portugal, and the Two Sicilies. The reply of France to that coalition was to make her most active

and able general, Napoleon Buonaparte, First Consul for ten years.—The Third Coalition was formed by England, also under the guidance of Pitt, with Russia, Austria, and Sweden, in the year 1805, after Buonaparte had been proclaimed Emperor of the French,¹ with the title of Napoleon the First.—When Pitt died in 1806, worn out with labour and anxiety, and “killed by the Battle of Austerlitz,” it was said, a new and Fourth Coalition was formed against France by England, Russia, Prussia, and Saxony

(i) “France was girt in by a ring of enemies the Emperor, Prussia Saxony, Sardinia, and Spain, were leagued in arms against her, and their efforts were seconded by civil war —GREEN

✓(ii) The crushing defeat of the Austrians at Austerlitz in 1805, and the overthrow of the Prussians at Jena in 1806 had made Napoleon master of nearly the whole of the Continent. Everything from the mouth of the Rhine to Naples was in his hands. But, in 1807, Russia and Prussia concluded with Napoleon the Peace of Tilsit, and Britain was left alone. Indeed, in this year, Russia declared war against England

The Czar Alexander and the Emperor Napoleon met on a raft—as neutral ground—in the middle of the river Niemen at Tilsit. ‘I hate England as much as you do’ said the Czar. Then peace is made replied Napoleon. And then the two potentates set to work to reconstruct the map of Europe.

13 Napoleon and Nelson —The history of Europe for nearly twenty years at the end of the eighteenth and the beginning of the nineteenth century is the history of Napoleon Buonaparte, the son of a Corsican lawyer, who was born at Ajaccio in 1769—the year which also saw the birth of Wellington. He first distinguished himself as an officer of artillery at the siege of Toulon, which he helped to recover from the hands of the English. From that time he gradually rose, seizing power after power, beating army after army, pulling down throne after throne, until he had risen to be Emperor of the French, and the whole of Western Europe lay at his feet.—In 1798, while as yet only a general under the French Convention, he undertook an expedition to Egypt, escaped from Nelson and the British fleet, and landed his troops in safety. But, after Buonaparte had landed, Nelson found the French ships lying in the Bay of Aboukir, under the shelter of a range of forts, attacked them at sunset, fought all night, and took or destroyed by far the larger part of the fleet. “It was not a victory,” said Nelson, “it was a conquest.” This was

¹Not of France. He held that he ruled by the will of Frenchmen, of the French people. So Leopold was King of the Belgians and King William of Prussia had himself proclaimed in 1870 Emperor of the Germans, Mary was Queen of Scots.

the great Battle of the Nile, the first of August 1798 Nelson had received a severe wound in the head, and was carried below with his scalp hanging over his eyes. The surgeon left the patient then under his hands and ran up to attend to him. "No hurry," said Nelson, "I will take my turn with my brave fellows." It was this complete self-forgetfulness, this preference of public duty to private feelings, that made him the darling of the British navy—Buonaparte received another check at Acre in 1799, when the gallant Sir Sydney Smith, at the head of a few seamen and marines, beat him back from the walls, and gave him the first reverse his arms had ever met with on land. The Battle of Alexandria, gained in 1801 by Sir Ralph Abercromby, compelled the French to evacuate Egypt, and, the year after, Great Britain made peace with France at Amiens. "It is a peace that everybody is glad of and nobody is proud of," said an observer. It was a short-lived peace, too, and war between these two great powers broke out once more. In retaliation for the seizure of French vessels without a formal declaration of war, Napoleon ordered the arrest of all English travellers in France between the ages of eighteen and sixty, and twelve thousand peaceful Englishmen and Englishwomen were detained in that country, to their great sorrow and discomfort, for the next eleven years.

(i) The most striking event in the Battle of the Nile was the blowing up of the French ship *L'Orient*. The ship was on fire, she was burning for an hour the flames at length reached the magazine, and she was blown into the air. There was an awful silence on the sea. For ten minutes not a gun was fired by either fleet.

(ii) In this battle also Nelson went on his old maxim "Lay a Frenchman close and you will beat him."

(iii) It was the Battle of Alexandria that first broke down the belief that Napoleon's troops were invincible. The famous 42d Highlanders distinguished themselves in this action.

(iv) By the Peace of Amiens Britain restored to France, Spain, and Holland, all the conquests she had made except the islands of Ceylon and Trinidad. The king of England was also to give up the title of "King of France."

14 Trafalgar and Austerlitz—In 1804 Napoleon assumed the title of *Emperor*, and meditated an invasion of Britain. He collected a large army and a vast flotilla at Boulogne, and was only

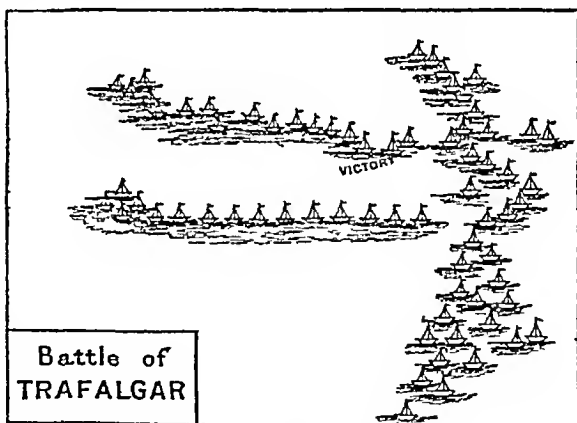
waiting for the junction of the French and Spanish fleets in the English Channel to carry out his purpose Four hundred thousand volunteers—from John o' Groat's House to the Land's End—sprang to arms for the defence of the island Lord Nelson, who had chased the French fleet across the Atlantic, suddenly found the combined ships of France and Spain, in full sail, off the low headland of Cape Trafalgar, and on the 21st of October 1805,



he hoisted his celebrated signal, "England expects every man to do his duty," and attacked the combined fleet The French and Spaniards had thirty-three sail of the line, five frigates, and two brigs, while the English fleet consisted of only twenty-seven first-rates, four frigates, a schooner, and a cutter The British fleet attacked in two columns, one led by Nelson in the *Victory*, the other by Lord Collingwood in the *Royal Sovereign* The battle was long, terrible, and bloody, but, ere it ceased, nineteen ships of the line had struck

Trafalgar
October 21
1805

to the English flag Nelson was shot through the shoulder, and died in a few hours, at the close of the engagement — But within six weeks, Napoleon had made up for this terrible disaster by his brilliant victory of the 2d



Nelson's column led by the *Victory*, Collingwood's column is south of Nelson's

December 1805, over the Emperors of Austria and Russia at Austerlitz,—a victory which marked the highest point of his power, and which is said to have killed Pitt This great statesman, pointing to the map of Europe, said "Roll up that map, it will not be wanted these ten years' He died at the early age of forty-six.

Austerlitz
Dec 2
1805

(i) Napoleon's army at Boulogne consisted of 130,000 men, 15,000 horses, and 600 guns. It was called the "Army of England." Its lines stretched more than three leagues—from Cape Alpreck to Cape Grisnez. The men and horses were practised daily in embarking and disembarking. Every man had his own boat and his fixed and numbered place. It was reckoned that the whole army could be put on board in two hours. But the French fleet was not ready, and Napoleon had to break up his camp and march his army into Germany.

Napoleon had a medal struck to commemorate the subjugation of England. On one side were the words *Frappé à Londres*.

(ii) At Trafalgar Nelson carried out his old tactics of breaking the enemy's line and getting close to each ship. "No captain," he said, at the Council before the battle, "can do wrong who places his ship close alongside that of an enemy."

There was an illumination in London for the Battle of Trafalgar, but there was no rejoicing. Every common person in the streets spoke first of their sorrow for Nelson and then of the victory.

(iii) At the Battle of Austerlitz Napoleon defeated a hundred thousand Austrians and Russians, and took forty thousand prisoners.

Napoleon wrote to his brother, "A whole column threw itself into a lake and the greater part of them were drowned. I fancy I still hear the cries of these wretches whom it was impossible to save."

15 Wellington—Arthur Wellesley, the rising young general, first distinguished himself in India, of which country his brother, the Marquess Wellesley, was Governor-General. In 1803 he had gained the famous Battle of Assaye over the powerful tribes of the Mahrattas, and the general opinion pointed to him as the man who could most equally and successfully grapple with Napoleon. That great Corsican had, by 1807, not only made himself Emperor of the French, King of Italy, and Protector of the Confederation of the Rhine, but he had given thrones to three of his brothers, and duke-

doms and principalities in numbers to his successful generals. 1808 and marshals. He now wished to add Spain and Portugal to his empire, and the Peninsular War, a struggle which lasted six years, began in 1808. Sir Arthur Wellesley landed in Portugal, and defeated Marshal Junot at Vimiero. Sir John Moore also advanced into Spain, but, receiving no assistance from the Spaniards, he was driven back to Corunna, to which port 1809 he executed a masterly retreat, though he himself fell, and was buried on the field of battle.

(i) The Battle of Assaye broke the power of the Mahratta chiefs. It was the 'bloodiest for its number' that Wellesley (Wellington) had ever seen. The Mahrattas were seven to one.

Wellington many years after wrote thus to a friend
to a very ordinary exercise of common sense

I was indebted for my success at Assaye
I had to cross a river my native gules

assured me that the river was impassable where I thought of crossing it. I pushed forward till I could see with my glass one village on the right or near bank of the river and another village exactly opposite on the other bank and I immediately said to myself that men could not have built two villages so close to one another on opposite sides of a stream, without some habitual means of communication either by boats or a ferry—most probably by the latter. My guides still persisted that there were neither. I marched for the river found a passage crossed my army over and had no more to fear from the enemy's cloud of cavalry. And there I fought and won the battle—the bloodier for the number that I ever saw, and this was all from the common sense of guessing that men did not build villages on opposite sides of a stream without some means of communication between them."

(*) Marshal Soult, the French leader opposed to Sir John Moore, wrote to Colonel Napier, many years after the battle, that Moore "well understood how to profit everywhere by the advantages which a rough and broken country gave him, and that he had fallen in a combat which ought for ever to honour his memory."

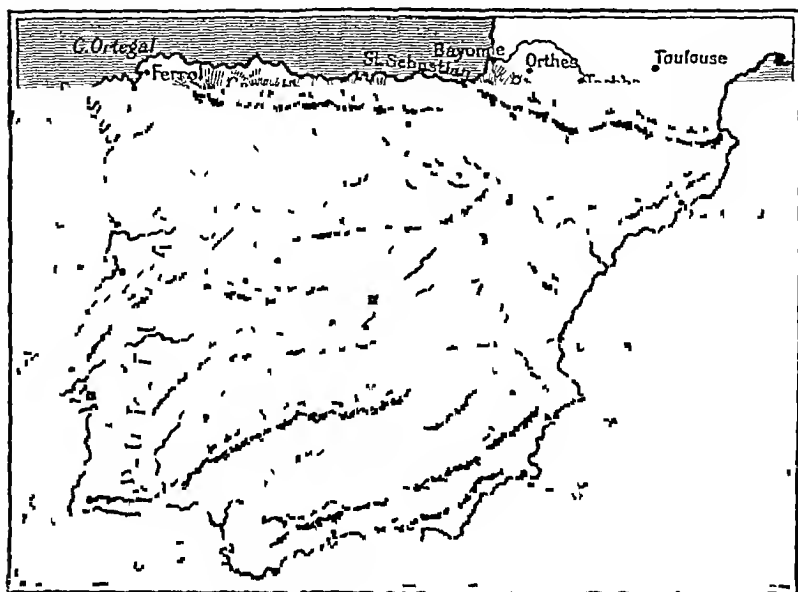
16 Wellington beats the French out of Spain.—In 1809 Sir Arthur advanced into Spain, and gained the Battle of Talavera, but finding that the French had three armies in the country, each larger than his own, he retired slowly before Marshal Massena behind the strong threefold lines of Torres Vedras, near Lisbon.

"He round affrighted Lisbon drew
The treacherous walls, the vast designs
Of his laboured rampart lines."

These lines the French were unable to force—Wellesley had the most terrible difficulties to face. He had a very small army, and he was frequently hard put to it for provisions, while the French took whatever they wanted in the country without paying ^{Peninsular} for it, and we had to depend on our allies, the Spaniards, ^{War} who seldom kept their word or sent in sufficient supplies 1808-14.

At length, in 1811, he issued from his intrenchments and by three years' hard work fought his way through Spain and step by step beat back with well-directed blows the Napoleonic eagles across the snow-clad range of the Pyrenees into France. He won the great Battles of Salamanca, Vittoria, and Orthez, stormed the cities of Ciudad Rodrigo, Badajoz, and San Sebastian; fought for six days amidst the rocks and snows of the Pyrenees, and at last on the 10th of April 1814 gained the decisive Battle of Toulouse. He had trained and created an army with which "he could," he said, "go anywhere and do anything," and now he stood with it upon "the sacred soil of France" ready and eager to meet Napoleon himself. But only six days before Napoleon, who had left four hundred thousand men dead between Moscow and Niemen on his disastrous retreat from Russia, had been defeated by the Allies in the great Battle of Leipzig; and the Emperor of Russia and the King of Prussia

had already entered Paris at the head of their victorious armies Napoleon was compelled to abdicate, the Bourbons came back to the



The Battle fields of the Peninsular War

throne of France, and the beaten Emperor was allowed to retire to the little island of Elba, of which he was made king

(i) Sir Arthur Wellesley, writing to a friend, said "The Battle of Talavera was the hardest fought of modern times The fire at Assaye was heavier while it lasted but the Battle of Talavera lasted for two days and a night. Each party engaged with a fourth of their numbers

This battle " says a French writer recovered the glory of the successors of Marlborough which for a century had declined. It was felt that the British infantry could contend with the best in Europe "

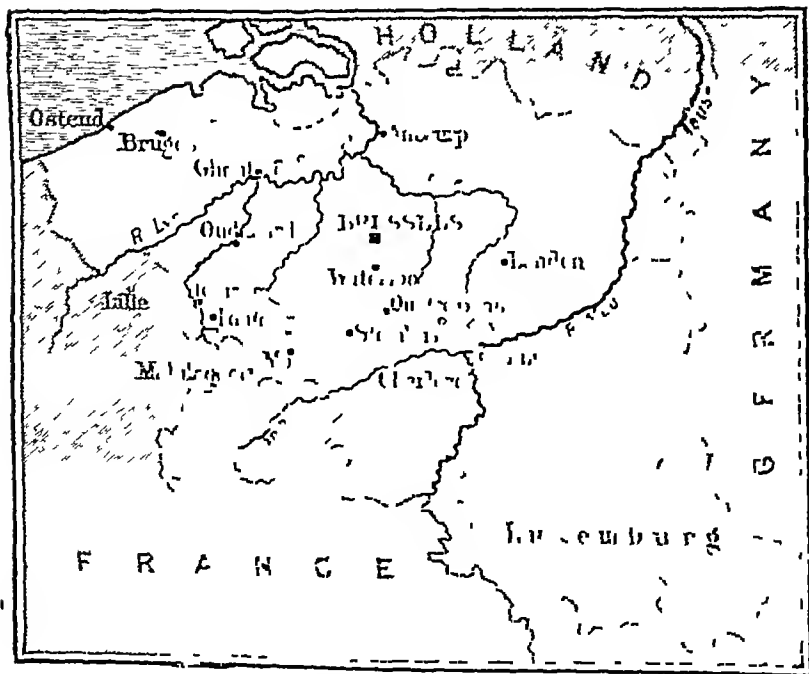
(ii) After the Battle of Talavera, Wellesley was created Viscount Wellington. He was afterwards made successively Earl, Marquis, Duke

(iii) In the celebrated "Lines of Torres Vedras, the sides of the hills were cut into steep escarpments, their tops were crowned with forts the guns planted could command every avenue of approach, the gorges were closed with redoubts, the river which flowed past the hills was rendered innavigable by dams, and the whole line of defence measured twenty nine miles Behind the first line stood a second, and, had both these been forced, a third series of defences was ready to receive the enemy Massena, the French general, had been ordered by Napoleon to drive the British army into the sea, he sat down before Torres Vedras with 50,000 men for a month, and he then fell back with a starved and disheartened army

(17) When Napoleon stood on one of the hills of Elba, he could take in at one glance the whole extent of his dominions "Ah !" he said, "it must be confessed that my island is somewhat small"

17 The Hundred Days—Napoleon's world-conquering spirit could not be caged within that petty state, and in the spring of 1815 he contrived to effect his escape alone, landed in France, and presented himself to a regiment of veterans, who received him with the most rapturous welcome This was the beginning of The Hundred Days Louis XVIII stole out of Paris and fled helplessly to Ghent, and Napoleon, having collected a vast army, marched into Flanders to meet the Prussians and the English "I go," he said, "to measure myself against Wellington" The English Parliament voted the extraordinary and till then unheard-of budget of £90,000,000 for expenses, and the Duke of

The
Hundred
Days,
Feb June
1815



The Battle fields of Belgium.

Wellington—for this had been his title since the Battle of Toulouse—went to meet him at the head of eighty thousand troops Marshal Blucher, at the head of more than one hundred thousand Prussians,

was also sent against him Napoleon's plan was to meet and to beat them in detail at Ligny, Quatre Bras, and Waterloo

(i) After Napoleon had made his escape from Elba, and was marching with a very few troops through the south of France, the governor of Grenoble sent out a force to

arrest him Napoleon advanced alone to meet them. "I am your Emperor!" he said, "fire on me if you like!" The soldiers threw themselves on their knees with the cry of "Vive l'Empereur!"

(ii) Napoleon generally spoke of Wellington as "that general of sepoys"

(iii) There were two battles fought

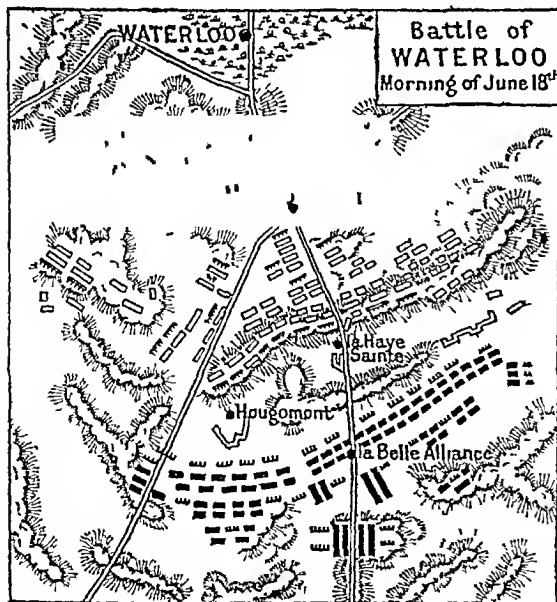
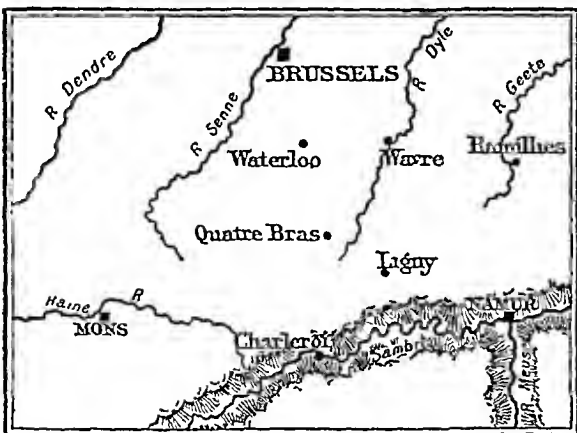
before the day of Waterloo—the Battle of Ligny, between the Prussians under Marshal Blucher and the French, and the Battle of Quatre Bras, between the French and the

British, on June 16th The Prussians fell back upon Wavre, and the British on Waterloo

Quatre Bras = Four Arms, or the place where four roads meet. The roads that cross are that from Lorraine to Charleroi and that from Brussels to Namur (Compare Carfax in Oxford—the point where four streets meet.)

18 Waterloo,
June 18, 1815

—After a severe engagement between the English and the French

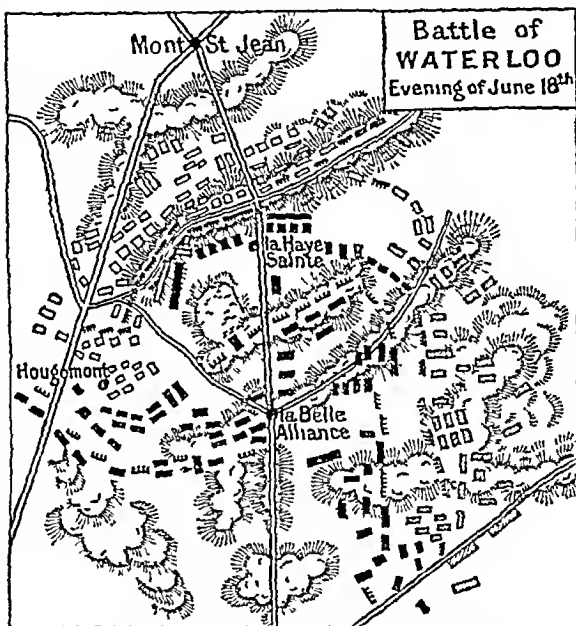


The British white, the French black.

at Quatre Bras, the two great generals joined battle near the village

of Waterloo, on Sunday the 18th of June 1815 The fight was long, bloody, and stubborn, for five hours the British troops held on to their position, and resisted wave after wave of fierce attack, until at length, towards the evening of the day, the guns of the Prussians were heard in the distance The French cavalry, fighting bravely and even desperately, flung themselves again and again on the British squares, but they were always broken and driven back with terrible slaughter Napoleon at length ordered up his reserve, which consisted of his tried friends, veteran soldiers who had seen many a campaign and had won for him many a well fought field, and which he called *The Old Guard* They advanced with the old fiery ardour and confident steadiness, but were received with so fearful a fire that they wavered and were driven in rout down the hill Wellington now

Waterloo
1815



The British white, the French black the Prussians shaded.

gave an order for the advance of the whole line, and the vast array of the British army poured down upon the French forces in one irresistible sloop, which carried every position of the French, and changed the defeat of their army into a rout and a flight In the three days of hard fighting—for there had been engagements on the 16th, 17th, and 18th of June—nearly seventy thousand men, of whom only ten thousand were British, were killed upon the field of battle Napoleon tried to escape to America, but, failing in this attempt, he was obliged to surrender to the captain of the *Bellerophon*, and he was banished by the Powers to the island of St Helena, where he died of cancer in the stomach in the year 1821

(i) "Wellington used to describe the line of ground between the farm of La Haye Sainte and Hougomont as resembling the curtain of a bastion, with these two positions for its angles

(ii) "The general opinion was, that after having taken the post of Hougomont, he would then make himself master of La Haye Sainte, and afterwards decide the battle by a violent attack of his reserve upon the enemy's centre "

(iii) Looking on the carnage going on round him in the afternoon of the day, Wellington exclaimed "Would to God that night or Blücher were come !

19 Minor Wars—Before returning to affairs at home, three important events ought to be noticed In 1809 a powerful expedition was sent to the island of Walcheren, to assist the Dutch in rising against their French masters, but our troops were attacked by the marsh fever, which arose from the "blue, dense, and fetid" morning mist of the island. In 1812 the United States, irritated by our determined claim to search for British sailors on board American vessels, declared war, and attempted to conquer Canada, but the war ended, with little result on either side, in 1815 The last military operation of this long reign was the bombardment of Algiers by the combined fleet of the English and Dutch The Dey of Algiers had kept in slavery for years a large number of Europeans, and this action of the British Government compelled him to set free nearly two thousand men who had been wretched slaves for many years of their lives

(i) The object of the Walcheren Expedition was to take Flushing and Antwerp, both of which were in the hands of Napoleon An army of nearly 40,000 men was sent, escorted by a fleet of more than fifty sail of the line and frigates This army was conquered by the chill marsh mist which rose perpetually from the ground

(a) "The sea was covered for miles with shipping and all was animation Upwards of a thousand sail were rolling at anchor off Deal and among them six enormous three deckers that looked like castles All England seemed to have collected on the coast. Boats were sweeping in all directions among the fleet. The whole had an incomparable look of spirit and triumph —KINGSTON

(b) Napoleon wrote Before six weeks of the fifteen thousand English who are on the island of Walcheren not fifteen hundred will be left. The rest will be in the hospitals."

(c) Most of the troops slept in the open air "The island was covered with a sheet of exhalation—blue dense and fetid." It unstrung every muscle penetrated every bone and seemed to sear and enfeeble all the sources of mental and bodily life "

(ii) There were also misunderstandings between Lord Chatham, the general of the army, and Sir Richard Strachan, who commanded the fleet.

"The Earl of Chatham, with his sword drawn,
 Stood waiting for Sir Richard Strachan,
 Sir Richard, longing to be at 'em,
 Stood waiting for the Earl of Chatham

- ✓ (iii) The American War was ended by the Peace of Ghent in the beginning of 1815. The most notable action in it was the duel between the two frigates the Shannon and the Chesapeake. Captain Broke, of the English frigate Shannon, fought the Chesapeake and captured her in fifteen minutes. *an*
came to the
of war of second-rate power
- ✓ (iv) Lord Exmouth was in command of the British fleet for the reduction of Algiers. One thousand and eighty three Christian slaves were released.

✓ 20 Home Affairs—With the return of peace came widespread misery and deep discontent. Years of strife had impoverished the whole of Europe, the National Debt of Great Britain had been trebled by the war, in 1816 there was a bad harvest, foreign wheat could not by law be imported until the famine price of eighty shillings a quarter had been reached, thousands of soldiers and sailors were disbanded and without employment, and hundreds of thousands of poor people were starving. Want of labour during the war had led to the invention of new machinery, and new machinery had thrown thousands more out of work. Riots broke out everywhere. The Luddites, a secret society, leagued together to break the stocking-frames and lace frames which had taken from them their employment and their bread, roamed through the country, breaking, burning, and pillaging. The war had enriched the landowner, the capitalist, the manufacturer, the farmer—in short, all those who had already money or land, but it had made the poor man poorer. It had impoverished all those who had nothing but their daily labour to live on.

(i) There had been a wet season in 1816, and a bad harvest, the people were starving, corn in May was 76s. 4d a quarter, in December 103s (in 1800 it is about 24s). In Suffolk and other agricultural districts, burning corn stacks and farmyards sent a lurid blaze through the night, threshing machines were broken by day, in towns the operatives marched through the streets bearing banners inscribed with the legend "BREAD OR BLOOD!" Bands of Luddites roamed about armed and masked, broke into factories and houses, smashed frames and machines and furniture. There were also Bread Riots in many parts of the country.

LUDDITE was the name given to the conspiracies organised for the destruction of machinery. The name came from that of a poor fellow, Ned Lud, who had in 1811 broken in a fit of passion two stocking frames. The law punished this with fourteen years transportation. A Bill was passed to make the offence capital. At York, in 1812, sixteen Luddites were hanged.

(ii) "Society, too, was disturbed by the great changes of employment consequent on a sudden return to peace after twenty years of war, and by the disbanding of the immense forces employed at sea and on land"—GREGY

✓ 21 Death of George III—George III had been insane at different periods of his life, in 1810 he became permanently and hopelessly ill, and his eldest son, George, Prince of Wales, was

appointed Prince Regent To the maladies of insanity and old age was added that of blindness, and in this double darkness of body and mind the poor old king died at Windsor Castle, on the 29th of January 1820, after a long and most eventful reign of sixty years

(i) "He was not only sightless he became utterly deaf All light, all reason, all sound of human voices, all the pleasures of this world of God, were taken from him Some slight lucid moments he had, in one of which, the queen, desiring to see him, entered the room, and found him singing a hymn, and accompanying himself at the harpsichord When he had finished, he knelt down and prayed aloud for her, and then for his family, and then for the nation, concluding with a prayer for himself, that it might please God to avert his heavy calamity from him, but, if not, to give him resignation to submit He then burst into tears, and his reason again fled" —THACKERAY

(ii) His eldest son, George, had had only one child, the Princess Charlotte, who married Prince Leopold of Saxe Coburg (afterwards King of the Belgians) in 1816 and on her the nation looked as their future queen but, to the great sorrow of all loyal subjects, she died the year after her marriage

✓ 22 Ireland (i) —The Parliament in Ireland did not represent the nation, but only the Protestant part of it—about one sixth in all The English Parliament not only suppressed the political desires of the people, but depressed their trade The withdrawal of English troops from Ireland for the American War proved the opportunity of the Irish, and the Protestant Volunteers, who took the place of the regular English troops, began to think that it would be a good thing if they used their arms for the benefit of their own country Why should they not, like the Americans, demand legislative independence? The British Parliament abolished many of the restrictions on Irish trade, it modified Poyning's law, it abolished the Sixth Statute of George I, and at length the great orator Richard Grattan succeeded in carrying through Parliament a resolution—the celebrated Grattan's Parliament Declaration of Right—declaring the complete legislative independence of Ireland The resolution was carried unanimously in both Houses This was in 1782

(i) A Bill was passed by the British Parliament allowing Catholics to hold property, the free exercise of their religion, the right to educate their children, etc. etc.

(ii) "On the 17th of May 1782, Mr Fox presented to the House of Commons the Resolutions of the Lords and Commons of Ireland on the King's Message of the 16th of April, and he moved the repeal of that Statute of George I which asserted the dependence of Ireland —KNIGHT

23 Ireland (11)—Thus Ireland had succeeded in obtaining the independence of its Parliament, though the country was still subject to the crown of Great Britain. But this Parliament was composed of Protestants only, and represented only Protestants. During the war of the French Revolution the hopes of many Irishmen rose high, that they would be able, with the aid of France, to bring about the complete independence of their country. Several expeditions were sent to their aid. The most formidable of these, in 1796, under General Hoche, one of the ablest of Napoleon's lieutenants, with 20 000 men, was scattered by a tempest; but a smaller one, in 1798, succeeded in reaching Longford. The persons who were in correspondence with France called themselves by the title of *The United Irishmen*; they rose in rebellion when the French landed, but were easily put down, and those made prisoners were treated with the most terrible severities. After the suppression of this outbreak, and of the secret societies which had encouraged it, the Irish Parliament was abolished, and from the 1st of January 1801 Ireland has sent her representatives to the British Parliament.

(1) On board one of the French vessels was captured the famous leader of the Irish Patriots, Wolfe Tone . He was tried by court-martial and sentenced to death, but he committed suicide in prison.

(17) "This country (Ireland) could not be saved without the Union, but you must not take it for granted that it will be saved by it. Much care and management will be necessary, and, if the British Government place their confidence in an Irish faction, all will be ruined."—LORD CORNWALLIS.

24 Scotland.—Scotland, since the Union, had been rapidly advancing in industry, manufactures, commerce, and wealth. There still, however, remained great abuses. Among these was the state of the colliers and salters, who were bought and sold like slaves, along with the works they toiled in. So strong was this custom in an otherwise enlightened country that Parliament could not venture at once to sweep it away; but an Act was introduced, declaring that all children born in connection with these works after a certain date should be free, and all grown-up persons after a certain term of service. Negro slavery was declared illegal in England in 1772, but it was not till 1799 that the freedom of these poor Scotch people was established by law.—Another abuse was, that the penal laws against Roman Catholics, which were repealed in England in 1778, were

retained in Scotland. The Lord Advocate of the day, Henry Dundas, tried to pass a bill for their abolition, but fierce riots broke out in Edinburgh and Glasgow, and even the Roman Catholics themselves petitioned that the bill might be dropped. It was not till fifteen years later, in 1793, that the Scotch Roman Catholics were relieved from their penal disabilities. Nor was political opinion in Scotland any freer than religious opinion. In 1793, Thomas Muir, advocate (or Scotch barrister), and Fyshe Palmer, a clergyman, were sentenced to transportation—the one for fourteen, the other for seven years—for no other crime than that of giving their views on the reform of Parliament.

25 The Work of Parliament (1)—The First Parliament of George III had been called during the reign of his grandfather, in 1754, and it continued to sit for its full term of seven years. The Prime Minister at this time was the Duke of Newcastle. This Parliament passed one important Act—an act which enabled judges to remain in office for life, and not to vacate office at the death of the sovereign.—The Second Parliament of this Sovereign met in the end of 1761. Lord Bute was Prime Minister. This Parliament passed a Bribery Act in 1762, and, in the year after, under George Grenville as Prime Minister, it passed a still more important Act doing away with General Warrants. In 1766 it also passed the American Stamp Act, but, the year after, under the Marquis of Rockingham, this Act was repealed. The Duke of Grafton succeeded Rockingham and induced the House to pass a very paltry and most irritating Act—the American Duties Act.—The Third Parliament of this reign met under the Duke of Grafton, and had a great deal of trouble with John Wilkes. Wilkes was elected over and over again for the county of Middlesex, but the House constantly declared his election void. This Parliament repealed the American Duties Act, though it still allowed Townshend, the Chancellor of the Exchequer, to keep a duty of threepence per pound on tea. It also permitted reports of party debates to be published, and abolished the old legal custom of the *Peine forte et dure*.

(1) **General Warrants** were warrants in which no name was entered, and accordingly any suspected persons might be arrested under them. They were thus manifestly instruments of tyranny.

✓ (ii) The Stamp Act was to compel all persons in the American colonies to affix a stamp—which they had to buy from the Home Government—to all contracts, wills, receipts, etc. It was a mode of collecting inland revenue, as the customs were for collecting duty on goods entering the country

✓ (hi) The American Duties Act put duties on small articles, such as tea, glass, paper, and painters colours

(iv) Wilkes had published an article in No 45 of his paper called the North Briton, in which he said that the Ministers had, in the king's speech, "put a lie in the mouth of the king" The Commons voted this "a false, scandalous, and seditious libel," expelled him from the House, and declared him incapable of sitting in it. The number of the newspaper was also burnt by the common hangman

The London populace liked Wilkes as much as they hated Lord Bute and the following epigram was handed round —

Because the North Briton inflamed the whole nation,
To flames they commit it to show detestation,
But throughout old England what joy would have spread
Had the real North Briton (Bute) been burnt in its stead !"

✓ (v) The tax on tea was retained as a matter of principle, to show that the Home Government had the right to tax the colonies.

(vi) If a person refused to plead in a criminal case, heavy weights constantly increased were placed on his body, and food refused him till he died. The unhappy recusants took this course, because, if found guilty, the whole of their property would go—not to their family, but—to the king

26 The Work of Parliament (u)—The Fourth Parliament of George III met in the year 1774, under the Premiership of Lord North, who had taken office in 1770. Wilkes was allowed to take his seat for Middlesex (he was also made Lord Mayor of London). A measure was passed in 1778 for the relief of the Roman Catholics—a measure which gave rise to the terrible Gordon Riots two years after. This Parliament is also famous for the celebrated resolution brought forward by Mr Dunning, "that the power of the crown has increased, is increasing, and ought to be diminished," which was carried by 233 to 215.—The Fifth Parliament met in 1780, and the Duke of Richmond brought in a Bill for annual Parliaments, manhood suffrage, and equal electoral districts, but it was rejected without a division. In 1782 Lord Rockingham came into power, and passed an excellent and just act for the exclusion of Government contractors from the House of Commons, and for preventing revenue officers from voting at Parliamentary elections. Rockingham died in 1782, and was succeeded by Lord Shelburne, under whose administration Britain acknowledged the independence of the United States. In 1783 the

Coalition Ministry came into power, with the Duke of Portland as nominal head, but it lasted for only a few months. William Pitt the younger next became Prime Minister, but, during the life of this Parliament, did nothing but pass the Mutiny Act. Pitt had great plans for fiscal and political improvement, but the wars with France turned the English government into a ministry of panic and repression, and postponed reform for more than forty years.

(i) In the General Election of 1744, the "borough" of Eton—in which there were no houses at all—was bought and sold for £75,000.

(ii) The Act for the relief of the Roman Catholics repealed the Penal Act of 1700, under which (a) a priest was imprisoned for life for saying mass (b) no Roman Catholic, unless he took the oath of supremacy (which, by his religion, he could not do), was capable of acquiring land either by inheritance or by purchase (his land went to the Protestant next of kin) and (c) no Roman Catholic could send his children abroad to be educated.

(iii) The Revenue officers of the country were able, by their votes, to control seventy elections, and, as a matter of course, their votes were given in favour of those who had appointed them.

(iv) The Coalition Ministry was formed by Lord North and Charles James Fox.

27 The Work of Parliament (iii)—The Sixth Parliament met in 1784, and gave much time to the affairs of India. William Pitt (the younger) was Prime Minister, and this was his first ministry. He was fortunate enough to pass his India Bill, the chief effect of which was to give the Government complete control over the administration of the East India Company, civil as well as military. In 1786 Edmund Burke moved the impeachment of Warren Hastings for various acts of maladministration in India. The trial did not begin till 1788, it lasted till 1795, and ended with the acquittal of Hastings. In this Parliament also there came up the question of the Regency, in consequence of the mental illness of the king. On this question Pitt and Fox took opposite sides. Pitt supported the view that in Parliament resides the complete right of settling the Regency, while Fox maintained that the Hereditary Apparent possesses the inalienable right "to assume the reins of government"—The Seventh Parliament met in 1791. War was declared against France in 1793, and the Government had its hands full of war business. In this year an Alien Act was passed to prevent the immigration of Frenchmen of revolutionary principles and character. For a similar purpose the Traitorous Correspondence

Bill was passed In 1795 Edmund Burke, the greatest political thinker that ever lived, retired finally from Parliament, and died two years after—The Eighth Parliament, also under the leadership of William Pitt, met in 1796 It refused to pass Mr Grey's motion for Parliamentary Reform, but it passed the very important Act for the Union of Great Britain and Ireland.—The Ninth Parliament of George III, which was the First Imperial Parliament of the United Kingdom, met under the Prime Ministership of Pitt it took up the important question of Catholic Emancipation, a bill to secure which Pitt had promised his Irish friends to pass, the king was bitterly opposed to it, Pitt resigned, and Mr Addington became Prime Minister—The Tenth Parliament met in 1802 The Treaty of Amiens had been signed, but war was again declared against France in 1803 Addington resigned in 1804, and Pitt formed a new administration—his second, which lasted till his death in 1806 Pitt wished to have Fox and Grenville in his Cabinet, but the king had personal objections to Fox, and Grenville would not act without him Pitt, moreover, was obliged to agree not to bring up the Catholic question On the death of Pitt, Lord Grenville and Fox united their forces and formed the ministry of "All the Talents", but Fox died in the same year The only important event that occurred in this Parliament was that Fox and Grenville carried a resolution in favour of the Abolition of the Slave Trade, and the Act itself was passed in 1807

(i) Pitt's India Bill appointed a Board of Control, which consisted of six members of the Privy Council, two of whom must always be the Chancellor of the Exchequer and a Secretary of State This Board had supreme authority over the East India Company It lasted till 1858—the year after the Indian Mutiny

(ii) The Alien Act ordered all foreigners to reside outside of a radius of 50 miles from Cornhill, London, and over 10 miles from the sea-coast and the dockyards The Traitorous Correspondence Bill was passed to prevent money or stores being sent to France.

(iii) The representation of the people of Great Britain was at this time in a very bad state There were 357 seats in the House of Commons that were held by the nominees of 154 private patrons and, of the boroughs that returned members, 200 had fewer than 100 electors, most of whom could easily be, and were actually, bribed

(iv) The Act of Union provided for (a) Free Trade between Great Britain and her Colonies and Ireland, (b) one Imperial Parliament—Ireland to send 4 spiritual and 28 elected temporal peers, and 100 commoners, (c) the Established Churches of England and Ireland to be united

(a) There are now 103 Irish Members of Parliament in the House of Commons

(b) Since the disestablishment of the Irish Church in 1869 the spiritual peers have ceased to sit in the House of Lords

(v) George III: a objection to Catholic Emancipation was that he considered himself bound by his Coronation Oath to show no favour of any kind to Roman Catholics. Unhappily, the majority of the nation sympathized with this view.

(vi) The Slave Trade—that is, the importation of slaves from Africa—was stopped in 1807, chiefly by the efforts of William Wilberforce, Thomas Clarkson, and Zachary Macaulay (the father of the historian). But Slavery—that is, the holding of slaves—was not abolished till 1833.

28 The Work of Parliament (vi) —The Eleventh Parliament of George III met in 1806 and lasted only one session. It was the shortest of all the parliaments of this reign. But it brought in a very important and useful bill—the Army and Navy Service Bill, and it also passed Wilberforce's Act for the Abolition of the Slave Trade. The first of these two bills caused the fall of the ministry, as it was looked upon by the king as a personal affront, and the Duke of Portland became Prime Minister.—The Twelfth Parliament—"a Tory and anti-Catholic Parliament"—had both the Peninsular War and Ireland on its hands, and plenty of trouble with both of them. It met in 1807. In its first session it passed the Irish Insurrection Act. In 1809 the Duke of Portland resigned, and Mr Spencer Perceval succeeded him. In the end of 1810 the king's insanity became permanent, and a Regency Bill was passed in 1811 by which the Prince of Wales became Regent. In 1812 Mr Perceval was assassinated in the lobby of the House of Commons by a madman named Bellingham, and Lord Liverpool undertook to form an administration.—In 1812 the Thirteenth Parliament of this reign was summoned. It removed some of the disabilities of Nonconformists, and it passed an act for the Relief of Insolvent Debtors. Riots had occurred in many parts of the country, and it suspended the Habeas Corpus Act for a whole year.—The Fourteenth and last Parliament existed for only thirteen months. Its chief legislative work consisted in passing the Six Acts, which were intended as the reply to the riots raised and the Reform meetings held by the working-classes during the year 1819. In January of 1820 George III died.

(i) The Army and Navy Service Bill was brought in to enable Roman Catholics and Nonconformists to enter these two services. But the king stubbornly declined to allow Catholics to serve on the staff, and he would not permit Protestant Dissenters to enter either service at all.

(ii) The Irish Insurrection Act provided that all persons out of their dwellings between sunset and sunrise should be arrested.

(7) Imprisonment for debt in the beginning of this century often meant imprisonment for life. A vivid account of the state of our prisons is to be found in Dickens's description of the "Marshall's Prison" in his *Little Dorrit*.

(8) There had been riots from 1715—after the Battle of Waterloo—owing chief to the distresses of Ireland, the scarcity of work, and the imperfect representation of the people in Parliament. In August 1819 a Reform Meeting was held in St. Peter's Field (now St. Peter's Square) in Manchester. A vast crowd was crammed within the space of three acres, the magistratus ordered the yeomanry to charge the crowd, they used their swords—edges as well as blades, and many were killed or wounded. This was afterwards known as the *Massacre of Peterloo*.

(9) The chief of the Elizabethan laws were directed against (a) training in arms, (b) the possession of arms (c) holding seditious meetings, (d) publishing "seditious libels" or pamphlets.

44 29 Social Facts—The advance in manufacture, commerce, and locomotion in the course of this long reign is one of the most remarkable phenomena in History. Watt's improvements on the steam-engine for the first time made steam the working-power of the world, Hargreave's spinning-jenny, Arkwright's spinning-machine, and Crompton's mule-jenny laid the foundations of the enormous cotton manufactures of Lancashire. From about 1780 the Manchester trade advanced until it became one of the greatest factors in the commerce of the world. Cort's invention of the puddling-furnace gave an immense impetus to the hardware and cutlery manufactures of Birmingham and Sheffield. New arts began to spring up. Lithography made its appearance in 1811. Wedgwood introduced art into the manufacture of pottery. Sir Humphry Davy, in 1815, produced his safety-lamp, which made mining a much less dangerous process to human life.—The Bridgewater Canal, between Manchester and Liverpool, was opened in 1761, and this means of locomotion made it easy and cheap to carry the bales of cotton from the great Mersey port to the factories of Manchester and the towns near it. The appearance of Henry Bell's "Comet" steamer on the Clyde, in 1811, foreshadowed the enormous possibilities of steam in its application to sea-going vessels, and was the beginning of that series of improvements which has culminated in steamships that now cross the Atlantic in six days.

CHRONOLOGY AND SUMMARY OF GEORGE III.'S REIGN

- | | | | |
|-------|---|-------|--|
| 1760 | Accession of George III. | 1802 | Treaty of Amiens |
| 1763 | The Peace of Paris
Wilkes arrested. | 1803 | War with France again |
| 1765 | The Stamp Act. | 1804 | Pitt Prime Minister
Napoleon collects troops and a flotilla
for the invasion of England. |
| 1766 | The Stamp Act repealed.
Pitt (now Earl of Chatham) Lord
Privy Seal | 1805 | The Third Coalition
Battle of Trafalgar |
| 1767 | American Imports taxed. | 1806 | (a) Death of Pitt
(b) Ministry of "All the Talents"
(a) Grenville Prime Minister
(b) Fox Foreign Secretary
(c) Death of Fox |
| 1768 | Wilkes Riots | 1808 | Peninsular War begins
(a) Battle of Vimiero
(b) Convention of Cintra. |
| 1770 | American Import Duties abolished
(except the tax on tea) | 1809 | (a) Battle of Corunna.
Death of Sir John Moore
(b) Battle of Talavera.
(c) The Walcheren Expedition. |
| 1771 | House of Commons Debates published
for the first time | 1810 | The Lines of Torres Vedras
George III. permanently insane |
| 1773 | India Act. | 1811. | Prince of Wales (afterwards George
IV) Regent. |
| 1774. | Wilkes Lord Mayor | 1812 | (a) Storming of Ciudad Rodrigo
(b) Storming of Badajoz
(c) Assassination of Mr. Perceval
Prime Minister
(d) The Battle of Salamanca |
| 1775 | Battle of Bunker's Hill. | 1813 | The Battle of the Pyrenees |
| 1776 | Capture of New York
The Whigs absent themselves from
Parliament. | 1814. | (a) Battle of Toulouse
(b) First Peace of Paris
(c) Congress of Vienna |
| 1777 | The Surrender of Saratoga | 1815 | (a) Escape of Napoleon from Elba
("The Hundred Days") March 1
(b) Battle of Waterloo, June 18
(c) Napoleon sent to St. Helena
(d) Second Peace of Paris. |
| 1778 | Death of Chatham. | 1817 | Suspension of the Habeas Corpus Act |
| 1780 | The No Popery Riots | 1819 | (a) Alexandrina Victoria (after-
wards Queen Victoria) born,
daughter of Duke of Kent,
fourth son of George III.
(b) Peterloo
(c) "The Six Acts" carried.
(d) First appearance of "Radical
Reformers" |
| 1781 | The Yorktown Surrender | 1820 | Death of George III. |
| 1782 | The Independence of the United States
acknowledged.
The 'younger Pitt' Chancellor of
the Exchequer | | |
| 1783 | William Pitt Prime Minister | | |
| 1786 | Impeachment of Warren Hastings | | |
| 1788 | Trial of Warren Hastings.
George III. insane | | |
| 1792 | Acquittal of Warren Hastings | | |
| 1793 | War with France
The First Coalition. | | |
| 1795 | Capture of the Cape of Good Hope
from the Dutch | | |
| 1797 | (a) Battle of Cape St. Vincent
(b) The Mutiny at the Nore
(c) Battle of Camperdown. | | |
| 1798 | Battle of the Nile | | |
| 1799 | (a) Siege of Acre
(b) The Second Coalition. | | |
| 1800 | Union of Great Britain and Ireland. | | |
| 1801 | Destruction of the Danish Fleet
at Copenhagen by Nelson.
(a) Pitt resigns
(b) Addington Prime Minister | | |

PLAN OF DATES
EIGHTEENTH CENTURY

1700	1701	1702 Death of William ANNE	1703	1704 Battle of Blenheim Capture of Gibraltar
1710 Dr Sacheverell impeached			1721 Walpole Prime Minister	
1711 Duke of Marlborough dismissed	1712	1713 Treaty of Utrecht.	1724	
1714 Death of Queen Anne GEORGE I	1715 The Fifteen. Battle of Sheriffmuir	1716 The Septennial Act.	1727 Death of George I GEORGE II	
1717	1718	1719		
1740			The Three per Cent	
1741	1742 Resignation of Walpole	1743 Battle of Dettingen	1751	
1744	1745 "The Forty Five " Battle of Prestonpans	1746 Battle of Culloden	1754	
1747	1748 Treaty of Aix la Chapelle.	1749	1757 Battle of Plassey	
1770 American Import Duties abolished (except the tax on Tea)			The	
1771	1772	1773	1781 The Surrender at York town.	Inde Un led
1774	1775 Battle of Bunker s Hill.	1776 Capture of New York	1784	
1777 Surrender of Saratoga	1778 Death of Chatham	1779	1787	Tri

	1730		
1723 Banishment of Atterbury	1731	1732	1733
1726	1734	1735	1736 Porteous Plots in Edinburgh.
1729	1737 Death of Queen Caroline.	1738 "Jenkins's Ear"	1739 War with Spain

lated Stocks")	1760 Death of George II GEORGE III Canada seized by the British.		
1753	1761	1762	1763 The Peace of Paris
1756 Beginning of Seven Years' War	1764	1765 The Stamp Act	1766 The Stamp Act repealed
1759 Capture of Quebec	1767 American Imports taxed	1768	1769

	1790		
1783 William Pitt Prime Minister	1791	1792 Acquittal of Warren Hastings	1793 War with France
1785 Impeachment of Warren Hastings	1794	1795 Capture of the Cape of Good Hope	1796

IMPORTANT CONTEMPORARY EVENTS

- | | | | |
|-------|---|------|---|
| 1762 | Accession of Catherine II of Russia. | 1795 | Third Partition of Poland |
| 1766 | French take Lorraine and make the Rhine their boundary | 1798 | (a) Rebellion in Ireland
(Battle of Vinegar Hill)
(b) The French in Egypt |
| 1768 | Captain Cook's first voyage to Australia | 1799 | Napoleon's First Consul |
| 1769 | Seizure of Corsica by France | 1800 | Battle of Marengo
(Napoleon defeats the Austrians) |
| 1772 | First Partition of Poland. | 1803 | Battle of Assaye
(gained over the Marhattas by Sir A Wellesley—Wellington) |
| 1773 | Tea riots at Boston. | 1804 | Buonaparte Emperor of the French. |
| 1774. | (a) Warren Hastings Governor-General of India.
(b) Accession of Louis XVI to the Throne of France | 1805 | The Flotilla at Boulogne for the invasion of England |
| 1776 | Declaration of Independence by the United States ("Fourth of July") | 1806 | End of the Holy Roman Empire |
| 1785 | Departure of Warren Hastings from India | 1808 | Joseph Buonaparte King of Spain |
| 1786 | Death of Frederick the Great | 1812 | The Expedition of Napoleon to Moscow |
| 1789 | (a) George Washington first President of the United States
(b) The Estates General of France meet at Versailles Beginning of the French Revolution | 1813 | Battle of Leipzig
(Napoleon utterly defeated) |
| 1793 | (a) Execution of Louis XVI
(b) Second Partition of Poland | 1814 | Abdication of Napoleon |
| | | 1815 | Waterloo |
| | | 1819 | Singapore seized by the British |
| | | 1820 | Revolution in Spain |

GREAT BRITAIN IN THE EIGHTEENTH CENTURY

1 Political.—The reign of Queen Anne, from 1702 to 1714, is remarkable for the rise and first beginnings of government by party, and of the rule of the Cabinet in representing the power of the Crown. Party government has since grown and strengthened, and the Cabinet, though not known to the constitution, is the most vital and most controlling force in the country. In its earlier stages, the Cabinet was the organ and mouthpiece of the Sovereign, it gradually grew to be the organ and servant of the House of Commons. In the eighteenth century, it was the Sovereign who chose the members of his Cabinet, in the nineteenth, it is practically the House of Commons and the nation who select them. It is the Sovereign who "sends" for them. In the beginning of this century, Queen Anne, and her successor George I, were practically in the hands of their own Ministers, but, towards the end, George III made a determined and persevering attempt to increase the power of the Crown. He succeeded, but he succeeded only by using the House of Commons as his instrument. Thus, silently, and without observation, the power of Parliament—and especially the power of the Lower House—had been growing all through the century.

(i) In theory, the Cabinet is only an irregular committee of H M s Privy Council.

(ii) William III chose his Cabinet from both parties. But this was soon found to be hardly a working arrangement.

(iii) George I could not understand a word of English, and therefore ceased to attend the meetings of his Cabinet. This threw more power into the hands of the Ministers who composed it.

(iv) George III was in the habit of consulting an "interior Cabinet" of his own. He operated on the House of Commons by purchasing seats (he held 65 at one time, which he could fill with his own nominees) and by giving places and pensions to his followers. His reign has been called the epoch of the "Restoration of Authority."

Places and pensions had all along nominally been in the gift of the Crown. When it was once understood that George III meant really to allot them himself, he soon found that he could dispose of votes in Parliament, which had hitherto been at the disposal of the Prime Minister. —GARDINER.

(v) There are three notes of a proper Cabinet. (a) Political Agreement on the most important political points. (b) United Responsibility—all its members to stand and fall together, (c) United Action—that is, in all important matters.

2 Agriculture.—During the progress of the eighteenth century, more and more of the land was brought under cultivation. The processes of agriculture were also greatly improved, and drill husbandry, among other plans, was introduced about the year 1732. The system

of rotation of crops was also introduced, and this system did far more justice to the bearing power of the soil. In the latter half of the century, a large number of agricultural societies were founded, the breed of sheep, especially in Leicestershire, was greatly improved, and the annual produce of corn was enormously increased.

The wages of an agricultural labourer were 5d a day with food, 10d without. Carpenters and masons received 6d and 1s.

3 Manufactures—The manufacture of woollens and of silk took rapid strides in the early part of the eighteenth century. The brass manufacture began to be of importance in Birmingham about the middle of the century, and Sheffield "plate" made its first appearance about the same time. But what produced the greatest revolution in our English industries, was the substitution of pit coal for wood in the smelting of iron ore. This plan came into use about the year 1740. From this period England took the lead as a manufacturing nation—a lead which she has maintained ever since. A still greater impetus was given to manufactures by the alterations and improvements made in the steam engine by James Watt in 1759—improvements which elevated the steam-engine from a toy to one of the great creators and distributors of "power" in the manufacturing world. The invention of the spinning jenny by Hargreaves, of the spinning-frame by Arkwright (in 1767), and of the mule-jenny by Crompton (in 1775), laid the firm foundations of the cotton manufacture, and of the wealth of Manchester and Lancashire. Coal-gas was first used for lighting in 1792, and this invention did more for the comfort and safety of large towns than any other ever made.

(i) The first silk mill was erected at Derby, in 1719, by Thomas Lombe.

(ii) It was thought that the right way to encourage the manufacture of woollens and silks was to discourage cottons and calicoes. Those who wore cottons were fined £5, those who sold them, £20.

(iii) The first iron works in Scotland were established at Carron, in Stirlingshire, in 1760. (The short guns cast there were called *carronades*.)

(iv) Richard Arkwright was a barber in Preston, with an attractive sign, which offered "a clean shave for a penny." He spent his last shilling in completing his spinning frame, he exhibited it in Preston, both he and his machine were threatened with destruction, he hastily packed it up and fled to Nottingham.

(v) Steam was not used for cotton spinning till the year 1785, water power had been the force usually employed.

(vi) James Watt (who was in company with Matthew Boulton) had his works at Soho, Birmingham. Mr Boulton said to James Boswell (the biographer of Dr. Johnson), when showing him round his works, "I sell here, sir, what all the world desires to have—Power."

4 Commerce—The South Sea Company, which was founded in 1711, marks one of the most important beginnings of our foreign commerce. Its trade was sound and legitimate, and it does not deserve the discredit which attaches to the "South Sea Bubble," which was an overblown speculation on a genuine basis. Our colonies were not allowed to trade with any other than the mother-country, and, as they grew, the trade with them grew also. After the Union in 1707 Scotland was permitted to trade with the English colonies in North America, and with the West Indies, and this trade laid the

foundation of the wealth and enormous increase of Glasgow. Our trade with India also grew rapidly during the course of this century.

5 Manners and Customs—People travelled by stage coaches and by wagons. The former went at the rapid rate of four miles an hour, the latter took a fortnight to go from York to London. The stage coaches were frequently stopped by highwaymen in masks, mounted on swift horses, who relieved the men of their money, and the ladies of their jewels. In the latter part of the century—in 1784—the first mail-coach appeared upon an English road, and both passengers and letters travelled with greater speed and safety. The coachman and the guard were armed to the teeth. The inns were extremely comfortable, because they were greatly frequented. The coffee-houses of London, from being “used” by different professions and different classes, gradually grew into exclusive clubs, where heavy gambling was the rage and the practice by day and night. The favourite amusement of fashionable ladies and gentlemen was to visit the tea-gardens in the suburbs—such as Ranelagh and Vauxhall—where the evening was spent in eating, drinking, and dancing. The three chief modes of conveyance in London were hackney-coaches, sedan-chairs, and wherries on the Thames.

(i) Travelling by wagon cost a shilling a day. The passenger got in at the back by a ladder.

(ii) The best known highwayman in the neighbourhood of London was the “Flying Highwayman,” who rode upon three different horses, “a grey, a sorrel, and a black one.” One of the chief feats of this man was to take a turnpike in a flying leap.

(iii) Charles James Fox—the rival of the younger Pitt—was an inveterate gambler. At one sitting—a very long sitting—he lost £11,000, or £500 an hour. Pitt was also addicted to gambling, but he suddenly gave it up. “Consideration like an angel came, and whipped the offending Adam out of him.”

6 Dress—Fashion in dress has in all times had a tendency to run into exaggeration, but in no century has the exaggeration reached such extremes as in the eighteenth. In the beginning of the century, the ladies wore the hoop-petticoat—which made it a matter of great difficulty and strategy to enter a coach, towards the end, their dress took the most enormous dimensions by vast stuffings, in the last decade, they had come down to the minimum of clothing. The fan—was a weapon for flirtation, the patch—to call attention to a fine feature, or to indicate political partisanship, the head-dress sometimes more than a foot in height,—these were the marks of the “fine lady”—of the “woman of quality.” The “Macaroni” was a still more astonishing figure. He wore an immense bunch, like a sack, of artificial hair behind, a very small cocked-hat, an enormous walking stick with long tassels, a long coat cut very close, and a sword. The ordinary coat worn by a gentleman of rank in the eighteenth century may still be seen on the shoulders of the footmen and men-servants of the present day. It was of some bright silk—pink or blue—or rich-coloured velvet, bordered with gold or with silver lace, the waistcoat, of flowered silk, came to near the knee, and the shoes were of morocco, with diamond buckles. The snuff-box for the men took the place of

the lady's fan, and a part of the gentleman's social education included "the nice conduct of a clouded cane"

(i) A caricature of the period represents a coach with a moveable roof, and a crane and pulleys to drop the lady in from the top, so as to avoid the disarranging of her hoop

(ii) The interior of the mass which composed the high head-dress was filled with wool, tow, or hemp—it was plastered over with pomatum, lard, etc., and it was kept up so long that it sometimes smelt very offensively

He asked her how long it had been since her head had been opened or repaired. She answered not above nine weeks. To which he replied that that was as long as a head could well go in summer

When he scents the mingled steam
Which your plastered heads are rich in
Lard, and meal, and clouded cream
Can he love a walking kitchen?

(iii) In the reign of George II dandies were called *beaux*, and *fribbles*, in George III's time, *macaronis*

(iv) The present dress of men servants is a survival of the eighteenth century. At first, this dress consisted of the cast-off clothes of the masters

(v) The dinner hour was about two—but, in very fashionable circles, it was as late as four. "In my own memory," writes Sir Richard Steele, "the dinner has crept by degrees from twelve o'clock to three, and where it will fix nobody knows. It is now at eight."

7 The Clergy—The clergyman of the eighteenth century, says Mr Knight, "had his own peculiar business in life to perform, which was chiefly to make himself as comfortable as possible." He generally ate too much, and drank too much. Some of the clergy were "ordained sportsmen," with their thoughts in the stable and the dog-kennel rather than in the church, and they were "regarded by their parishioners not as parsons of the parish, but as squires in orders." They did not visit the sick, they were too busy to be present at the last rites of the dead, and the poet Crabbe describes one as

"A jovial youth who thinks his Sunday task
As much as God and man can fairly ask

They had learned their habits at the Universities, where there was much joviality and little seriousness or study

(i) Clergymen would sometimes come to church in a hunting dress, leave their guns outside in a corner of the church, put on their cassock over their coat, read the service, and then go off for a day's shooting

(ii) The following advertisement appeared in an English newspaper of the time. "Wanted a curacy in a good sporting country, where the duty is light and the neighbourhood convivial."

8 The People—The chief characteristics of the English people in the eighteenth century were independence and roughness—roughness which often degenerated into coarseness and brutality. The severity of the criminal law, the weakness of the police, the frequency of public executions, the immense quantities of strong beer drunk, made the people, of London especially, "the most odious and brutal rabble in Europe." Monday morning was "hanging-day", parties were made up to witness the executions, and sometimes twenty were hanged in one morning. The police of London—they were called

"watchmen"—were weakly old men, with "no arms but a lantern and a pole," who patrolled the streets, called out the hour and the state of the weather, but were quite unfit to keep order in the streets. The same brutality was manifested in the treatment of prisoners. Felons and debtors, the burglar and the bankrupt, were hand-cuffed together, and had the same treatment in jail. Boxing and fighting with broad-swords were common amusements. There were few or no civilising influences among the middle and lower classes of England in this century.

(i) In the Fleet Prison, the head jailer could, and did, throw prisoners into dungeons, and load them with irons. The keeper of the Marshalsea "loaded with irons tortured, and destroyed prisoners for debt under his care." Thumb-screws and iron skull caps were the instruments of torture.

(ii) Fifty prisoners were sometimes locked up for the night in a room sixteen feet square, and, if they escaped the gaol fever, they were cut off by famine.

(iii) "To behold two men cut at each other with broad swords till one was disabled by severe wounds on the forehead and the leg, was a brutality that was at its height in the Augustan age.—KNIGHT

(iv) It was the great philanthropist John Howard (1726-90) who first tried to reform the prisons of England and Europe. He died at Kherson (in Russia) of the plague, caught when visiting a prison.

9 Literature (i)—The contrast between the literature of the beginning and the literature of the close of the eighteenth century is very striking. In the early part of the century we have Defoe and Swift, Addison and Steele, Pope and Thomson, in the latter half we find Goldsmith and Sheridan, Gibbon and Burke, Burns and Cowper. Dr Johnson forms the connecting link between the two periods, while, as heralding the dawn of a new day in thought, feeling, and literary expression, the great names of Wordsworth and Coleridge begin to appear two years before the close of the century.

(i) James Thomson (died 1748) was a Scotsman. He wrote "The Seasons," but his finest poem is the "Castle of Indolence."

(ii) Wordsworth (1770-1850) published his "Lyrical Ballads" in 1798, and in that volume appeared Coleridge's wonderful poem, "The Ancient Mariner."

10 Literature (ii)—Both literature and science prospered greatly during the reign of Queen Anne, though she herself never exerted the smallest influence upon either. The "wits of Queen Anne's time" became a current phrase in the history of English Literature. English prose, more especially, rose to a height of perfection which it had never before attained. Jonathan Swift wrote a style in prose that was full of vigour and manly sense, Joseph Addison's style was marked by the greatest sweetness, beauty, and urbanity. Among minor prose-writers come, close to them, the names of Daniel Defoe and Richard Steele. In poetry, Alexander Pope stood easily pre-eminent for wit, for sparkling epigram, and for powerful invective. After him, though at a great distance, come the lesser names of John Gay and Matthew Prior. Bishop Berkeley was a philosopher, who wrote a most clear and beautiful style, while Sir Isaac Newton was one of the greatest mathematicians and physicists that have ever lived.

(i) Swift's (d 1745) best-known work is his "Travels of Lemuel Gulliver". His most powerful work is the "Tale of a Tub".

(ii) Addison (d 1710) is most famous for his Essays (in the *Spectator*, etc.)

(iii) Defoe (d. 1731) is best known for his "Robinson Crusoe". But he was a most fertile author, and wrote about two hundred and fifty books during his lifetime. He was also one of the Commissioners for the Union with Scotland.

(iv) Steele (d 1729), commonly called "Dick Steele", wrote numerous Essays, and was a colleague of Addison in his weekly papers. He also founded the *Tatler* (1709), the *Tea Table*, and other papers of that class.

(v) Pope (d 1744) is famous for his "Rape of the Lock," his "Moral Essays," and his translation of the 'Iliad'. His most characteristic poem is his "Epistle to Dr Arbuthnot".

(vi) Berkeley's best known work is his "Minute Philosopher" (d 1753).

(vii) Newton's greatest work is his 'Principia' (d 1726).

11 Literature (iii)—Oliver Goldsmith was the most delicate essayist, and perhaps the most charming poet of the latter half of the century, while Richard Sheridan was the most brilliant writer of plays. Edward Gibbon is probably the greatest historian that ever wrote in the English language, Edmund Burke is perhaps our greatest political thinker, and certainly the noblest and most eloquent of all our writers on politics. Robert Burns, in Scotland, wrote some of the sweetest lyrics the world has ever heard, and the sensitive William Cowper led the way to a purer and clearer style in poetry than had prevailed during the century. In the very middle of the century appear its two truest poets (with the exception of Burns),—Thomas Gray and William Collins. Both elaborated and polished their work to the highest pitch, but both possessed the true poetic fire—the genius which sees into the life of man and of things.

(i) Oliver Goldsmith (1728-74) was a most diligent literary man. His best poem is "The Deserted Village", his best play, "She Stoops to Conquer", and his most delightful story "The Vicar of Wakefield."

(ii) Richard Brinsley Sheridan (1751-1816) was not only a play writer, he was also a distinguished orator and member of parliament. He took a leading part in the famous trial of Warren Hastings. His cleverest play is "The Rivals".

(iii) Edward Gibbon (1737-94) was the son of a wealthy land-owner. He was educated at Oxford, was in the militia and in parliament, and is celebrated for his great history entitled "The Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire".

(iv) Edmund Burke (1729-97) was a member of the House of Commons for about thirty years. His most famous work is the "Reflections on the French Revolution". Macanlay says that "in richness of imagination he is superior to every orator, ancient and modern".

(v) Robert Burns (1759-96) is the greatest lyrical poet of Scotland. Most of his poems are written in the Lowland Scottish (=North English) dialect.

(vi) William Cowper (1731-1800) was one of the most perfect "didactic" poets. His best known work is "The Task". He also translated the *Iliad* and *Odyssey* of Homer.

CHAPTER IV.

GEORGE THE FOURTH

Born 1762 Succeeded (at the age of 58) in 1820 Died 1830

Regent for 9 years King for 10 years

GEORGE IV, the eldest son of George III and Queen Charlotte of Mecklenburg Strelitz, was born at St James's Palace on the 12th of August 1762. He was well and carefully educated, and the subjects of his instruction were classics, modern languages, drawing, and agriculture. When he came of age, he established himself at Carlton House, and took his seat in the House of Lords. Most of his life was spent in getting into debt, out of which Parliament had to drag him. He married, in 1795, the Princess Caroline of Brunswick. They had only one child, the Princess Charlotte, who was married to Prince Leopold of Saxe Coburg (afterwards King of the Belgians), but who died in child bed. He inherited much of his father's obstinacy, and some portion of his mental weakness. He used to maintain that he had led a division at the Battle of Waterloo. He died at Windsor on the 25th of June 1830.

CHIEF PRIME MINISTERS Lord Liverpool, George Canning, Duke of Wellington.

CONTEMPORARY SOVEREIGNS

FRANCE.

LOUIS XVIII to 1824

CHARLES X. to 1830

PRUSSIA.

FREDERICK WIL-

LIAM III to 1840

RUSSIA.

ALEXANDER I to 1825

NICHOLAS to 1855

✓ 1 George IV, 1820-1830 — George III was succeeded upon the throne by his eldest son, George IV, who had been Prince Regent since 1811, during the mental and bodily illness—the blindness and insanity—of his father. The social and political troubles at the end of his father's reign took head, within a month of his own accession, in the form of a plot known as the Cato Street Conspiracy—a plot to murder all the Cabinet Ministers in a body. The Ministers had been invited to meet at a Cabinet dinner at the House of Lord Harrowby, and Thistlewood, the ring-leader, followed by the other conspirators, was to break into the

The
Cato Street
Conspiracy
1820.

house, put all the Ministers to death, set fire to the different barracks in London, open all the prisons, take possession of the Bank of England and the Tower, and form a Provisional Government. The plot was betrayed by one of the conspirators, who had all along been acting as a police-agent, the others were seized as they were arming themselves in a hay-loft in Cato Street (near the Edgeware Road), five of them were executed, and the rest transported for life

✓(1) Thistlewood had his head full of the ideas of the French Revolution. He had lived in France during its early stages, and, on his return to England, had taken part in some street riots. On his trial for this, he was acquitted but he was fool hardy enough to send a challenge to Lord Sidmouth, the Home Secretary. For this offence he was sentenced to a year's imprisonment. His period of confinement came to an end just about the time when the "Peterloo Massacre" occurred. This fired his brain, and combined with his private wrongs to induce him to form the plot. "I resolved," he said, at his trial, "that the lives of the instigators should be the requiem to the souls of the murdered innocents."

(2) "Lord Castlereagh was for going to the dinner in the face of it all at the hour invited

✓2 **The Queen.**—George IV had, when prince, led a reckless and discreditable life, but, on Parliament's promising to pay his debts, he pretended to reform, and married Caroline of Brunswick in 1795. He was a frivolous and selfish man, she was a coarse-minded and not very sensible woman, and the marriage was never happy. They were separated. On his accession to the throne, he went so far as to give orders that her name should be omitted from the public prayers of the Liturgy, and, stung by this insult, she left the Continent, where she had been living, returned to England, and resolved to assert her rights and to be crowned in Westminster Abbey as Queen of England. The House of Commons and the people in general took her side and looked upon her as a persecuted woman, while the king was so unpopular that he seldom dared to appear in public, and, when his carriage was observed, brickbats and stones were thrown freely at the windows. The king's Ministry brought into Parliament a *Bill of Pains and Penalties*, in which the queen was accused of various misdemeanours, and was declared to be no longer queen of England nor wife of George IV. But the bill had to be abandoned, so determined was the opposition—an opposition in which young Henry Brougham took a very prominent part. The whole country was overjoyed at the defeat of the bill, and London

was illuminated for three nights—In July, 1821 the king was crowned in Westminster Abbey. He had given orders that his wife was not to be admitted, she drove down to the Abbey, and presented herself at door after door, but at every door she found that entrance was denied. This humiliation weighed upon her spirits and broke her heart, she went home, and died nineteen days after the coronation.

(i) George IV was unpopular for many reasons the most important of them being his treatment of his wife. The mob hung hissing on the back and wheels of his carriage they stoned him, they even fired air guns at him.

(ii) His own Cabinet maintained that the evidence for the misconduct of the queen was quite insufficient. "The Cabinet offer all but divorce. The king will have divorce or nothing."

3 "The Holy Alliance"—The three powers, Russia, Austria, and Prussia, fearing the spread of what were called liberal opinions through the countries of Europe, united themselves in a Holy Alliance, which was intended to uphold everywhere the cause of absolutism and legitimacy. They thus made themselves the opponents not only of revolution, but of all reform. But England, guided by George Canning, who was for a short time Secretary for Foreign Affairs, refused to give her assent to the principle that we or any state had any right whatever to interfere in the internal concerns of other states.—In 1820 there were risings in Naples, in Portugal, and in Piedmont. The Austrians crushed the Italians, and the French put down the Portuguese. But Greece had risen against Turkey, and Alexander of Russia could not carry out his principles in this case. The Greek insurrection broke out in March 1821, and the war had lasted for six years with great cruelties on both sides. The Turks called on Mehemet Ali, Pasha of Egypt, to give them assistance, and he sent them a fleet and army, the bulk of which occupied the Morea. His mode of warfare was disgusting. He threatened that he would lay waste the country, carry off all the inhabitants, and colonise it afresh with Negroes from Africa. This hideous proposal roused the anger of Europe, Mr Canning, an ardent Greek scholar and a warm admirer of the Greek classics, showed the strongest sympathy, and England, France, and Russia sent a united fleet to prevent this terrible outrage being put into execution. They found the Turkish and Egyptian fleets drawn up in the Bay of Navarino in the form of a horse-shoe and ready for

Battle of
Navarino
1827

battle Admiral Codrington still wished to parley, and went on parleying until his pilot was shot by his side, he then gave the order for action, and in four hours the enemy's fleet was swept from the face of the sea

(i) The Holy Alliance was a convention between the Three Great Powers, Russia, Austria, and Prussia, declaring "their fixed resolution, both in the administration of their respective states and in their political relations with every other Government, to take for their sole guide the precepts of the holy religion of our Saviour, namely, the precepts of justice, Christian charity, and peace'

(ii) When the Duke of Wellington was asked to sign it, he drily remarked that the English Parliament "would require something more precise"

(iii) It was generally believed that these pious sentiments were only a cloak to hide the violation of their pledges to their own subjects, and the desire for territorial plunder at the expense of other States, on the part of the august signatories

(iv) Of 120 men of war and transports in the two fleets, one half were sunk, or burnt, or stranded.

✓ 4. Joint-Stock Companies¹—In 1824 money was very plentiful, trade had begun to revive, the opening of new markets in South America led men to hope for a short and speedy cut to vast wealth and people rushed to put their money into the wildest and most absurd schemes for increasing it. Loans were granted to half the states in the world, hundreds of joint-stock companies were formed, cargoes of warming-pans and skates were shipped to the tropics, and a large number of Scotch milk-maids were sent out to Buenos Ayres, to make butter of the milk of wild cattle for natives who did not wish for butter, but much preferred at table to use their own olive oil. Nothing, as before in the old South Sea times, was too wild for hope or too daring for enterprise. The natural result soon came. There was boundless hope and unlimited credit at first, and at last there was neither confidence nor credit nor money. A panic or commercial crisis broke out in 1825, when sixty-five banks stopped payment and closed their doors, while more than two hundred merchants became bankrupt

Money
Panic
1825.

(1) The chief causes of the panic of 1825 were (a) the great cheapness of money, and the ease with which it could be obtained for the purposes of new companies and of speculation (b) the enormous amount of paper money in the country, (c) the small amount of bullion, (d) the readiness of the Banks to discount bills at long dates

¹ Companies the capital of which is contributed by many different persons. The capital is the stock, and it is held jointly

(i) When the panic broke out, the Bank of England tried to stop it, and the Mint turned out 150,000 new sovereigns a day

(ii) Sir Walter Scott was one of those who were struck hard by the panic. He failed for £117,000. The following is an entry in his Diary of December 18th, 1825

'Rich and poor four or five times, once on the verge of ruin yet opened new sources of wealth almost overflowing. Now taken in my pitch of pride and nearly winged because London chooses to be in an uproar and in the tumult of bulls and bears a poor inoffensive hen like myself is pushed to the wall.'

If God grant me life and strength for a few years longer, I have no doubt I shall redeem it all.

5 Parliament—There were during this reign three great questions which were beginning to press themselves upon the attention of Parliament. The dissatisfaction with the state of representation had given rise to a desire for Parliamentary Reform, the depressed state of commerce, the suffering and misery of the lower classes, and the high price of corn, had brought about a demand for Free Trade, and the intense feeling of the Irish Roman Catholics at being shut out from all hope of place or of power made a burning question of the claim for Catholic Emancipation. The Reform of Parliament had to wait till the next reign, Free Trade had to wait till the reign of Queen Victoria, but Catholic Emancipation neither could nor would wait. Till the reign of George III the Roman Catholics had been subject to penal laws of great severity, and they were still shut out by the oath of supremacy from both Houses of Parliament, and from all offices, civil and municipal.

(i) In 1822 Lord John Russell brought forward a motion "that the present state of representation requires serious consideration."

(ii) The policy of the Government—as of Pitt—was, generally to take members from the small boroughs and villages, and give them to the counties, but the Advanced (Whig) Reformers desired to give them to the large centres of industry—such as Birmingham, Manchester, Leeds, etc., which were quite unrepresented. The rise of the great manufacturing towns was destined to alter the political centre of gravity in England. Before 1760 England was mostly an agricultural country, after that date, it gradually grew to be a manufacturing and commercial country.

(iii) It was not until the reign of Queen Victoria that Sir Robert Peel was able to carry the Repeal of the Corn Laws, and Mr Richard Cobden and Mr John Bright introduced Free Trade.

6 Catholic Emancipation—In 1823 a powerful association was formed in Ireland called the "Catholic Association", and it very soon showed its power by carrying the election of Daniel O'Connell as member of Parliament. The manner in which he was elected was

even more remarkable than the election itself Lord Palmerston said of it "The population of a whole province rose like one man—not a drunken man among them—and by strictly legal means hurled from his seat one of the Cabinet Ministers of the king"—Pitt had tried to remove the disabilities of the Catholics on the occasion of the Union with Ireland in 1801, but it was not till 1829 that success was achieved. The Duke of Wellington was Prime Minister, and, though himself unfavourable to the measure, he passed it, to avoid civil war. He spoke with the greatest frankness, and firmness to the House of Lords, and even went so far as to say "If I could avoid, by any sacrifice whatever, even one month of civil war in the country to which I am attached, I would sacrifice my life in order to do it" The Catholic Emancipation Bill received the royal assent on the 13th of April 1829

Catholic
Relief Bill
1829

(i) When Pitt proposed the Parliamentary Union between Great Britain and Ireland, he distinctly promised Catholic Emancipation to the Irish, but George III had scruples of conscience on the matter, and believed that such a measure would be inconsistent with his Coronation Oath. Even George IV professed to have "conscientious scruples"—he who never had a conscience about anything, but the Duke of Wellington overruled him.

(ii) The Earl of Winchelsea published a letter in which he charged the Duke of Wellington with intending "to introduce Popery into every department of the State." The Duke demanded the withdrawal of the letter, the Earl declined. The Duke challenged him, they met in Battersea Fields, the Duke missed, the Earl fired in the air, and then handed to the Duke a written apology. All's well that ends well.

(iii) Catholics were still excluded from the offices of Regent, Lord Chancellor, and Lord Lieutenant of Ireland.

7 Death of George IV.—The king had passed the later years of his life in strict privacy, surrounded by unworthy favourites, and worrying his servants nearly to death by his selfish exactions and his fretful temper. Mr Greville says that he would often ring for his servant forty times in the course of one night. He had visited Ireland in 1821, and it was remarked as the first peaceful visit that had ever been made by an English king, he had gone to Scotland in 1822, and had been received with rapturous loyalty. Sir Walter Scott seized the wine-glass out of which the king had drunk, and put it in his pocket, declaring he would never part from it but with his life, and, taking a chair soon after, he sat upon the glass and broke it into a thousand fragments. George was a man-of-good

natural abilities, fine musical taste, somewhat good-looking, and very dignified, and his admirers called him "the first gentleman in Europe" But he had no principle and no heart He died on the 26th of June 1830, at the age of sixty-eight.

(i) Sir Erskine May says of George IV "With greater abilities than his father, and superior education, he was fond of ease and pleasure, and averse to business"

(ii) Mr Greville, who knew him very well, says "A more contemptible, cowardly, unfeeling, selfish dog does not exist than this king"

(iii) He has been called by Macaulay "a bad son, a bad husband, a bad father, a bad subject, a bad monarch, a bad friend", and his latest biographer (in the *Dictionary of National Biography*) states that "his word was worthless and his courage doubtful."

(iv) The following are a few facts relating to his character in the different stages of his life —

(a) Before he was twenty he had spent £10 000 on clothes in one year

(b) Most of his early life was one round of ronts masquerades balls races boxing matches gambling parties and drinking bouts Before he was three and twenty he was £100,000 in debt He lived in borrowed houses travelled in borrowed chaises, and squandered borrowed guineas When he was sober enough to gamble he lost thousands of pounds a night.—*DICTIONARY OF NATIONAL BIOGRAPHY*

(c) His IOU'S were handed about freely in London, and could generally be bought up cheap He pawned his diamonds He raised £30 000 on post obits (=promises to pay on the death of his father) He raised a loan abroad, and when the foreigners came over here to get their money they were expelled the Kingdom under the Alien Act He cheated at races and was warned on the subject."

(d) His relations with his father were of the bitterest kind On catching sight of his son "—when the Prince of Wales went down to Windsor to see George III— the unhappy father flew at him clutched him by the collar, and threw him against the wall"

(e) He hoarded everything He kept all the coats, waistcoats trousers and boots of fifty years and he knew them all and could call for any one at any moment He had five hundred pocket-books—all of them with some money or notes in them About £10 000 was found in these pocket books

8 The Work of Parliament—The First Parliament of George IV was merely a continuation of the last Parliament of George III, and it was dissolved a month after the accession of the new king—The Second Parliament of this reign had its hands very full of business, and it got through a great deal of work Lord Liverpool was Prime Minister It abolished Capital Punishment for minor offences, it brought in, but was unable to pass, the celebrated Bill of Pains and Penalties It passed, in 1823, an important act for the relief of trade—Mr Huskisson's Reciprocity of Duties Bill, which is indeed the first Free Trade measure passed in this country It likewise passed an Act permitting foreign corn to be imported at a varying duty—The Third Parliament—and it was the last—met under

the leadership of George Canning, who died in 1827, but it was continued under the administrations of Lord Goderich and the Duke of Wellington. It repealed, in 1828, the Corporation and Test Acts, and thus enabled Catholics and Nonconformists to sit in Parliament and to hold office. In 1829 it passed Peel's Catholic Relief Act, and thus restored the franchise to the numerous Catholics of Ireland. Mr Peel (he was not Sir Robert till 1830) was likewise fortunate enough to pass a bill for establishing a Police Force in London, where it was very greatly needed.

(i) Capital Punishment had, up to the beginning of the nineteenth century, been attached to crimes of the slightest character. Picking pocket, stealing from a shop to the value of five shillings, from a private house to the value of forty shillings, stealing from a bleaching ground articles of the smallest value—all these and many other petty offences were punished or punishable with death. Sir Samuel Romilly was the chief advocate for the abolition of these punishments.

Many juvenile offenders were punished capitally, and even children of tender age. A little child under ten was lying in Newgate under sentence of death for petty pilfering while Sir Samuel Romilly was speaking in the House.

(ii) The Bill of Pains and Penalties against the queen passed the House of Lords by the small majority of nine, but it was withdrawn in the Commons.

(iii) By the Reciprocity of Duties Bill, duties were to be remitted on merchandise of a foreign country, whether imported or exported in a British ship, if the foreign country acted in the same way towards merchandise from our country. The measure did away with much of the injury caused by the Navigation Acts of the seventeenth century, which prohibited the importation of goods except in English vessels.

(iv) Walpole's Annual Indemnity Acts had been passed year by year down to 1828. They relieved Dissenters from the duty of attending Church, but they still, in order to spare the pride of Churchmen, imposed the necessity of taking the sacrament upon office holders. In 1828 the sacramental test disappeared. Instead of this test, a declaration "on the true faith of a Christian" was demanded; this excluded Jews.

(v) Before Peel's London Police (called "Peelers" from the name of their founder) the "peace" of this large town was kept by old and decrepit "watchmen," who generally did not watch, but went to sleep on their posts. The chief liberty enjoyed by the citizen of London was "the liberty of being robbed and knocked on the head at the discretion of their honours the thieves." The lighting of most of London was very bad.

9 Great Men—The Duke of Wellington was by far the most distinguished personage of this reign, and he showed his high ability in politics and statesmanship, as he had before displayed it on the field of battle. In statesmanship alone, the two greatest names are

those of George Canning and Robert Peel, and the former combined with his lofty aims and noble efforts for freedom a literary ability which might have won for him a high position in the world of books. In Ireland, and Irish affairs, the colossal figure of Daniel O'Connell towers above most of his contemporaries — In philanthropy, the names of William Wilberforce and Fowell Buxton are familiar to all of us in connection with their untiring efforts on behalf of the Negro slave.

10 Social Facts — Commerce and manufactures, which had been greatly depressed just after the Battle of Waterloo, began to revive in this reign, and the only check on this revival was the money-panic of 1825. Commerce was fostered by Huskisson's Reciprocity of Duties Bill, and manufactures were greatly encouraged by the reduction of the duty on silk, and by giving greater freedom both to the importation and the exportation of wool. The Caledonian Canal, which connects the east and west of Scotland, and makes of the northern part of that country a large island, was completed in 1824. The Menai Suspension Bridge was finished in 1825. The London Mechanics Institute was opened in 1823, and the example of London was quickly imitated by most of the large towns in different parts of the country.

SHORT CHRONOLOGY AND SUMMARY OF GEORGE IV's REIGN

1870	Accession of George IV	1825	Widespread failure of Banks and Companies Sir Walter Scott fails
	(a) The Cato Street Conspiracy	1827	(i) Canning Prime Minister (April)
	(b) Bill of Pains and Penalties against the queen.		(ii) Death of Canning (Aug)
1821.	Coronation of George IV		(iii) Battle of Navarino
	The Queen shut out of Westminster Abbey	1828	Duke of Wellington, Prime Minister
1822	Sir Robert Peel, Home Secretary		(a) The Test and Corporation Acts repealed
	Salicide of Castlereagh		(b) Sliding scale of Duties on foreign corn
	George Canning, Foreign Secretary	1829	Catholic Emancipation Act
		1830	Death of George IV

IMPORTANT CONTEMPORARY EVENTS

1821.	Death of Napoleon.	1823	War between Greece and Turkey Lord Byron goes to aid the Greeks.
1832	(a) Independence of Greece acknowledged	1824.	(i) Death of Lord Byron.
	(b) Brazil separated from Portugal Dom Pedro proclaimed Emperor		(ii) Death of Louis XVIII of France
			(iii) Accession of Charles X

CHAPTER V

WILLIAM THE FOURTH

Born 1765 Succeeded (at the age of 65) 1830 Died 1837

Reigned 7 years

WILLIAM IV (Duke of Clarence) was the third son of George III. He was born at Windsor, brought up as a sailor and, at the age of fourteen, entered the Royal Navy as a midshipman. His hearty, bluff, sailor-like manners made him very popular in Society. He was an "Old Whig" in politics, but, when he came to the throne, he took neither side. He died of heart-disease on June 20th, 1837, leaving behind him the memory of a genial, frank, warm-hearted man, but a blundering though well intentioned prince.

1 William IV, 1830-1837 —George IV was succeeded by his brother William Henry, Duke of Clarence. He was a sailor, and had passed most of his life in the Navy —Soon after his accession, the spirit of revolution was abroad almost everywhere. In July 1830 the people of Paris had driven Charles X from the French throne, to find a cold and dreary refuge in Holyrood Palace in Edinburgh, the people of Belgium had risen against the Dutch, and the Poles, whose country had long been divided among their powerful neighbours, Russia, Austria, and Prussia, believing they again saw a gleam of hope, rose to win back their lost fatherland and their abolished institutions. Among Englishmen, the Revolution in France met with universal sympathy and admiration, and a widespread agitation for Parliamentary Reform at once began. There was discontent among the working classes also, and, in the manufacturing districts, it took the form of breaking machines—power-looms and spinning-jennies, in the agricultural counties of the south, the poorer classes took to rick-burning. A few incendiaries were arrested and hanged, but for many a night no farmer could lay his head upon his pillow and feel certain that his corn and hay would not be in flames before the morning.

(i) The French Revolution of July 27th, 1830, was brought about chiefly by the general depression in trade and agriculture. Charles X was a Bourbon, who pretended to be a constitutional king. The elections to the French Parliament went against the Government, and the king proposed to issue three ordinances: one against the liberty of the Press, the second dissolving the Chamber of Deputies, the third altering the constitution. The populace of Paris rose, barricades were thrown up, the Hotel de Ville was seized, the troops were deserting, the Revolutionists hoisted the tricolor and rang the tocsin. His advisers counselled Charles to make concessions, his orders were always to mass the troops. But the troops fraternised more and more with the people, and an *émeute* changed into a revolution. Charles abdicated, then fled, and the English Government gave him the dull and dingy residence called Holyrood Palace to live in.

(ii) The people of Brussels rose in the following month. This rising was put down. They rose again in September, and the Dutch troops were compelled to retreat before the armed insurgents. At the end of the year the Great Powers recognised the Independence of Belgium.

(iii) The effect of this French Revolution in England was to deter the middle classes from uniting with the too eager working men. But Hunt and Cobbett set to work and preached social equality. Machines were regarded as substitutes for manual labour, and therefore as throwing so many hands out of work. The burning of corn stacks destroyed food, and therefore raised the price of food, but at least they hurt the rich, who selfishly neglected the poor.

2 Parliamentary Reform—And Parliamentary Reform was much needed. Many of the ancient but decayed boroughs—called “rotten boroughs”—contained only from one to seven electors. The borough of Old Sarum had neither electors nor inhabitants, and the gentleman who sat for it in Parliament represented only himself, a grassy mound, and a ruined wall. Large, wealthy, and hard-working towns like Birmingham and Manchester, Leeds and Sheffield, were totally unrepresented in the House of Commons, and most of the towns which possessed representatives were in the hands of small corporations, whose votes could be bought or sold like bread and beef, or houses and land. The two Pitts had long seen the necessity for reform, and the younger Pitt had three times brought forward plans in the House. In 1816 William Cobbett, by his vigorously written and cheap publications, had made Reform a popular cry, and clubs of persons, who called themselves Chartists, had sprung up to promote far more sweeping changes than were likely to be carried, such as universal suffrage, vote by ballot, and annual Parliaments.

(i) The Reform Struggle had very special features. It was not an ordinary parliamentary struggle. One hundred and forty members were asked to efface and to

sacrifice themselves When Lord John Russell read out the list of boroughs it was proposed to disfranchise, he was interrupted with shouts of laughter and ironical cries of "Hear! hear! from the members who sat for them Many of the members of the House of Peers held seats in the House of Commons as their "property," and were naturally most unwilling to give them up

(ii) The corporations of towns and cities were deprived by the Reform Bill of the exclusive privilege which many possessed of returning M P s Many of the members of these corporations could be, and were, bought

3 The Reform Bill (1) — William IV's first Parliament contained a large proportion of Whig members, and most people expected that the king's speech would contain a promise that a bill upon the subject of Reform would be brought forward But upon this head the king's speech was totally silent So intense was the feeling in London, that the king was advised not to go in state to dinner at the Guildhall, as is usual at the beginning of a reign, lest he should be attacked in the streets, and, a few days after, the Duke of Wellington and Sir Robert Peel were compelled to resign Earl Grey and Lord John Russell, the leaders of the Whig party, — Earl Grey as Premier, and Lord John as leader of the House of Commons, — were summoned by the king and commanded to prepare a Reform Bill The Whig party had been out of office for twenty years — The bill was defeated, and the Ministry dissolved Parliament Through the length and breadth of the country no cry was heard except the cry of "The Bill, the whole Bill, and nothing but the Bill," and the new House of Commons, elected under this cry, passed the bill by a large majority But it was defeated in the House of Lords by a majority of forty-one The unenfranchised classes of the large towns broke into riot, incendiary fires reddened the night all over the country, the castle at Nottingham was burnt down, and Bristol was in the hands of a furious mob for two days One hundred and fifty thousand men met at Newhall Hill in Birmingham, and with bared heads and raised hands took an oath "With unbroken faith, through every peril and privation, we here devote ourselves and our children to our country's cause," and it became plain to every one concerned that it would be dangerous, if not disastrous, to refuse compliance with the will of the country The Birmingham Union had made arrangements to march to London two hundred thousand strong, and to encamp on Hampstead Heath The Lords saw it

would be impossible to resist, and the Duke of Wellington, followed by about a hundred peers, left the House, and thus the bill was passed by a large majority

(i) "Sir Robert Peel sat rigid as a statue, his face working with internal emotion, his brow furrowed by the wrinkles of age. Around him were many of his supporters, bursting again and again into uncontrollable laughter at what appeared to them the prelude to a certain and speedy downfall of the ministry" —KNIGHT

(ii) The debate on the first reading lasted seven nights, and guests at dinner parties sat late to receive the different pieces of news from the House. Some of these produced bursts of merriment. The Duke of Wellington remarked of one "It is no joke, you will find it no laughing matter

(iii) Many persons threatened to stop paying taxes, if the Reform Bill did not pass

(iv) Macaulay, in one of his greatest speeches, said —

Reform that you may preserve. Renew the youth of the State. Save property divided against itself. Save the multitude endangered by its own ungovernable passions. Save the aristocracy endangered by its own unpopular power. Save the greatest, and fairest and most highly civilised community that ever existed from calamities which may in a few days sweep away all the rich heritage of so many ages of wisdom and glory "

4 The Reform Bill (ii) —There were one hundred and forty-three seats to dispose of. Sixty-five of these were given to the counties, and the rest to the large towns. The franchise was given to all persons in boroughs who lived in houses of a rental of £10 a year and upwards, if in counties, their houses or land had to pay a rent of at least £50. "Thus was completed," says a modern historian, "after a delay of nearly a hundred and fifty years, the second act of the English Revolution" The first act was the expulsion of James II in 1688, which gave the real power into the hands of Parliament, this second act placed political power in the hands of the middle classes of England. It was feared that a revolution was about to take place in England, many of the richer classes sent their money to be invested in Denmark and in America, but the movement proved to be simply the quiet introduction of the middle classes to the duties of government

(i) The Reform Bill disfranchised 56 nomination or pocket boroughs. These boroughs returned 111 members. Manchester, Birmingham, and Leeds, each received two members

(ii) The number of members for Scotland was raised from 45 to 53 (There are now 72)

(iii) The number of members for Ireland was raised from 100 to 105 (There are now 103)

(iv) It was during the struggle for Parliamentary Reform that the Tories first took the name of *Conservatives*, to indicate their feeling that they wished to preserve the old institutions of the country, while the Whigs and their friends chose to go by the name of *Liberals*, to show that they desired to see civil and religious liberty prevail all over the world. There were some also who called themselves *Radicals*, because they aimed at going further than the Liberals, and at reforming Parliament and the Government of the country "root and branch."

From Latin *Radix* (*radic-*) a root.

5 Slavery—The first reformed House of Commons met in the month of February 1833, and the first subject to which it turned its attention was the question of slavery in our British colonies. Ever since 1788 an agitation for the abolition of slavery and the slave-trade had been going on in the country, and in 1807 the slave-trade—that is, the exportation from Africa and importation into the West Indies of Negroes—had been abolished, on the motion of Mr Fox. Smuggling in slaves had, however, still gone on, and the number of slaves in our colonies was rapidly increasing. Slaves coming to England had always been free, for, as Cowper says,

"Slaves cannot breathe in England, if their lungs
Receive our air, that moment they are free,
They touch our country, and their shackles fall"

The national conscience was now thoroughly aroused, and in August 1834 was passed the *Act for the Abolition of Slavery*. The country had to pay to the planters £20,000,000 sterling, and the slaves were to remain apprentices to their masters for five years longer. Before 1839 eight hundred thousand slaves had received their freedom.—William Wilberforce was the father of the movement, and he lived just long enough to see the desire of his heart fulfilled, and to thank God that the purpose of his life had been fully worked out. Sir Fowell Buxton was the leader of the abolitionists in the House of Commons.

(i) Wilberforce died only three days before the passing of the Slavery Abolition Bill. "Thank God," he said, "that I should have lived to witness the day in which England is willing to give twenty millions sterling for the abolition of Slavery."

(ii) It was expected that there would be risings on the 1st of August 1834. There were no riots, no insurrections. "the planters went to the chapels where their own people were assembled, greeted them, shook hands with them, and exchanged most hearty good wishes."

6 The Poor Laws, etc—Among the other important events of this reign were the Acts for the reform of the poor laws and of the

municipal corporations—The poor-rate had in 1833 risen, by gross mismanagement, to the sum of nearly £9,000,000 a year, when the population of England was only fourteen millions, but by the new Act it was reduced in three years to less than £6,000,000. Strong men and women were no longer allowed to live at ease upon the rates paid by hard-working labourers and careful and industrious tradesmen, but were compelled to work for their own living—The corporations—or bodies existing to manage the business and the general interests of towns—had fallen into a very bad and corrupt condition, votes were bought and sold, the right of voting for councillors was in the hands of very few persons, and large sums of money were wasted on feasting, excursions, and riotous living. The Municipal Reform Bill cured all this, the number of voters in each borough was very largely increased, and all moneys spent had to be accounted for to the public.

(i) In 1783 the poor rate for England and Wales amounted to a little over £2,000,000, and the population was then 8,000,000. In 1833—just half a century after—the poor rate was nearly £9,000,000, while the population had only risen to 14,000,000. That is, the poor rates had increased 300 per cent, the population only 75 per cent.

The demoralisation of the poor from the habit of begging and the weakness of the Poor Laws was something frightful. The sturdy beggar was a capitalist and an epicure: ate fowls and beefsteak for supper and despised broken meat, had money in the funds and left handsome legacies to his relatives. "A blind beggar would write letters in the evening for his illiterate brethren: a widow sat for ten years in one corner with a pair of young children (she said they were twins) who never grew any bigger. In the workhouses the able bodied men got as much as they could eat. 'We never weigh anything' said a governor of one of these workhouses: and there is no stint so as they do not waste anything. Then they have good table beer and good ale. Imposture and crime were bountifully rewarded while industry and frugality—refusing to enter the workhouse—met either with neglect or with persecution."—*KNIGHT*

(ii) The poor rate was in many cases equal to the rent of the land itself, and, in some cases, greater.

(iii) The new Poor Law prohibited the giving of relief to the able bodied. The rates had often been employed to supplement wages. It also united several parishes into one—called a Union—and the parish workhouses were replaced by the Union workhouse.

(iv) Many of the Town Corporations had the power of co-optation—that is, of selecting for themselves persons of their own acquaintance to fill vacancies.

(v) The new Municipal Reform Act gave all rate payers a vote for the Councillors, and these Councillors elected the Aldermen and the Mayor.

(vi) The only Corporation exempted from the operation of this Act was the Corporation of London.

7 Death of William IV—The king died at Windsor Castle on the 20th of June 1837, at the age of seventy-two. His wife, Princess Adelaide of Saxe-Meiningen, had had two daughters, but both died in infancy. He was therefore succeeded by Alexandrina Victoria, the only child of his brother, Edward, Duke of Kent, the fourth son of George III. King William had always been a favourite, and, even after coming to the throne, he preserved the frank, hearty manner and the bluff kindness of the old sailor. He walked in the freest and most open way about London—in an old hat and with an old umbrella, talked frankly with all his subjects, men of both political parties were invited to his table, and he thus showed that he perfectly understood the proper position of a constitutional king¹.

(i) Mr Greville says of William IV. "The king's good nature, simplicity, and affability to all about him are certainly very striking, and in his elevation he does not forget any of his old friends and companions. He was in no hurry to take upon himself the dignity of king, nor to throw off the habits and manners of a county gentleman. Altogether he seems a kind hearted, well meaning (not stupid), burlesque bustling old fellow, and if he doesn't go mad, may make a very decent king, but he exhibits oddities."

(ii) Lord Melbourne, who was Prime Minister for the last two years of his reign, speaks of William IV. as "most fair, most candid, most impartial, most willing to hear, to weigh, and to consider what was urged even in opposition to his most favourite opinions."

(iii) "Sir Robert Peel bore the same testimony to the king's utter forgetfulness of all amusements, and even of all private considerations, that could for a moment interfere with the most efficient discharge of his public duties.—KNIGHT"

(iv) When Victoria came to the throne, Hanover—which had been made a kingdom² in 1815—passed by virtue of the Salic Law,³ to Ernest Augustus, Duke of Cumberland, the fifth son of George III, and thus became separated—much to the comfort and peace of mind of most Englishmen—from the Empire of Great Britain.

8 Great Men.—The most distinguished men of this reign were almost all statesmen or politicians. On the Liberal or reforming side of politics stood prominently out the figures of Lord John Russell and Earl Grey, on the Conservative side were Wellington and Sir Robert Peel. Lord Brougham was an energetic lawyer, member of Parliament, orator, and writer, but he soon forfeited the confidence of his own party, on the ground of his waywardness and high opinion of his

¹ A constitutional king is of no party but is always on the side of the whole country.

² It is now part of the kingdom of Prussia. It was absorbed in 1866, when the king of Hanover declared war against Prussia and fought on the side of Austria.

³ The law which forbids a woman to reign.

own talents. The statesman whose judgment was most respected was Lord Althorp, though he could hardly put two sentences together. Lord Palmerston and Stanley (afterwards Lord Derby) were two of the most vigorous and rising young statesmen of the day.

9 The Work of Parliament (i)—The First Parliament of William IV's reign was merely a continuation of the last under George IV, and it did nothing of any importance.—The Second Parliament met under the administration of Earl Grey, who, with Lord John Russell, was eager to carry a Bill for the reform of the House of Commons and the mode of electing members to it. Lord John brought in his Reform Bill, it was debated on the first reading for seven nights, it was carried on the second reading by a majority of only one, several important clauses were defeated in committee, the ministers felt that this was a very narrow majority, and they persuaded the king to dissolve Parliament, and to allow them to appeal to the country.—The Third Parliament contained a large majority of members pledged to drastic measures of reform. The second reading of the Reform Bill passed by a majority of 136, but in the House of Lords it was thrown out by a majority of 41. At the meeting of Parliament in December, the Reform Bill was again passed in the House of Commons—this time by a majority of 162. The Lords had by this time reflected and seen the danger of their position, many of them stayed away from the House, and the Bill finally passed the Peers by a majority of 106 to 22.

(i) Lord Grey's Reformed Ministry consisted of old Whigs and the milder Tories. Lord Brougham was his Lord Chancellor, Lord Melbourne his Home Secretary, Lord Palmerston his Foreign Secretary, and the Ministry also contained Macaulay and Stanley (afterwards Lord Derby).

(ii) The second Parliament also passed a Regency Act, by which the Duchess of Kent (the widowed mother of the Princess Victoria) was appointed Regent if the king should die before the Princess reached her majority.

(iii) William IV employed his personal influence with the Peers to induce them to cease their opposition.

10 The Work of Parliament (ii)—The Fourth Parliament—it was the First Reformed Parliament—met in January of 1833. The Liberals held in this Parliament a majority of more than three hundred, and were able to do pretty much what they pleased. They

passed an Irish Church Reform Act, an act for the Abolition of Slavery, a Factory Act, and a much-needed Poor Law Amendment Act—The Fifth Parliament met under the leadership of Sir Robert Peel. The Conservatives had made large gains, but the Liberals had still a majority of more than a hundred. Sir Robert had to resign, and Lord Melbourne took office. He was fortunate enough to pass the Municipal Reform Act—"the great measure of the Session"—an act which did for Town Councils what had been already done for the House of Commons—placed the representation of towns on a broad and permanent basis. This Parliament also, in the year 1836, ordered its Division Lists to be published: the people could thus see how their representatives voted, and the affairs and doings of Parliament became public to the fullest extent.

(i) The First Reformed Parliament contained 486 Liberals to 172 Conservatives.

(ii) This Parliament also passed an Irish Coercion Act, which empowered the Lord Lieutenant to break up dangerous assemblies, and to proclaim martial law in disturbed districts.

(iii) The Irish Church Reform Act—also called the Church Temporalities (Ireland) Act—suppressed two archbishoprics and eight bishoprics and incorporated them with others. Many sinecures were also abolished.

(iv) The Factory Act, drawn up by Lord Ashley (afterwards Earl of Shaftesbury) forbade altogether the employment of children under nine years of age, and the working of women and young persons under 18 for more than twelve hours a day.

11. Social Facts—By far the most striking and most important event in this reign was the opening in September 1825 of the Liverpool and Manchester Railway. It was the first of an immense number of lines which now connect every town—and almost every village—of any size in Great Britain, and which have covered the face of this island with a network of railways more close than any that is to be found in any part of the world. It was the beginning, too, of rapid and cheap conveyance for the people of Great Britain, and in these two respects the Railways of this country still stand easily in front of all other nations. The Overland Route to India was opened in 1824, but, since the cutting of the Suez Canal, there has been an easy water-way to India from every part of Europe. The new London Bridge was finished in 1831, and the foundation-stone of the National Gallery was laid in 1837. The population of England and Wales

amounted in 1831 to nearly 14,000,000, of Scotland to less than 2,500,000, and of Ireland to nearly 8,000,000

(i) Mr Huskisson (who had been Chancellor of the Exchequer under the Duke of Wellington, and was member for Liverpool) was knocked down by the "Rocket"—George Stephenson's locomotive—had his leg broken, and died the same night

At Parkside many gentlemen got out of the train Mr Huskisson went up to speak with the Duke. A cry arose "Get in! get in!" Mr Huskisson got confused fell upon the rail and the Rocket crushed his right leg

(ii) The thickest networks of railways in Great Britain are to be found in South Lancashire, in and around Birmingham in and around London, and in the coal and iron valley which lies between Edinburgh and Glasgow The only parts of the Continent that can compare with these are to be found in Belgium and Saxony

(iii) The London and North Western Railway was also opened in this reign—in 1837

SHORT CHRONOLOGY AND SUMMARY OF WILLIAM IV's REIGN

1830	Accession of William IV	(i) Factory Act for children (ii) First Education Grant (£20 000)
	(a) Opening of Manchester and Liverpool Railway	1834 (a) Poor Law Amendment Act
	(b) Earl Grey Prime Minister	(b) Abolition of Slavery in British Colonies
1831	(i) Introduction of the Reform Bill. (ii) New Parliament with large majority of Reformers	(c) Peel Prime Minister
	(iii) Reform Bill passes the Commons	1835 Melbourne Prime Minister Municipal Reform Act
	Asiatic cholera appears	1836 House of Commons publishes its Division Lists
1832	THE REFORM BILL passes both Houses	1837 Death of William IV (His brother, the Duke of Cumberland, succeeds to the throne of Hanover)
1833	First Reformed Parliament	

IMPORTANT CONTEMPORARY EVENTS

1830	(i) Revolution breaks out in Paris (ii) Charles X flees to Scotland (iii) Revolution in Belgium (iv) Belgium separated from Holland	1832 Prince Otho (son of the king of Bavaria) created King of Greece (a new kingdom)
1831.	Leopold of Saxe Coburg (husband of the late Princess Charlotte) created King of Belgium (a new kingdom)	1836 (a) South Australia settled, with Adelaide as its capital. (b) Louis Napoleon (nephew of Napoleon I) makes an attempt at insurrection at Strasbourg

(i) Adelaide received its name from Queen Adelaide, the wife of William IV

(ii) Louis Napoleon made a second attempt at Boulogne in 1840, and again failed He made a peaceful attempt in 1851, and succeeded in being appointed President

CHAPTER VI

VICTORIA

Born 1819 Succeeded (at the age of 18) in 1837

PART I

ALEXANDRA VICTORIA was the only child of the Duke of Kent (fourth son of George III) and Louise Victoria of Saxe Coburg (sister of Leopold I, King of Belgium, and widow of the Prince of Leiningen). Her father died in 1820 and the education of the young Princess Victoria was directed by her mother, the Duchess of Kent. In 1840 she married ALBERT of Saxe Coburg Gotha, who was created Prince Consort in 1857. He died in 1861. They had four sons and five daughters. The Queen celebrated the Jubilee of her reign in 1867.

CHIEF PRIME MINISTERS Lord Melbourne, Sir R. Peel, Lord John Russell, Lord Derby, Lord Palmerston, Mr. Disraeli (also as Lord Beaconsfield), Mr. Gladstone, Lord Salisbury

CONTEMPORARY SOVEREIGNS

FRANCE	PRUSSIA	RUSSIA
LOUIS PHILIPPE, 1830-49	FREDERICK WILLIAM III, 1797-1840	NICHOLAS, 1825-55
LAMARTINE (President), 1848		ALEXANDER II, 1855-81
LOUIS NAPOLEON (President), 1849-52	FREDERICK WILLIAM IV, 1840-61	ALEXANDER III, 1881
NAPOLEON III (Emperor), 1852-70	WILLIAM I, 1861-88	
THIERS (President), 1870-73	(German Emperor), 1871	
MACMAHON (President), 1873-79	FREDERICK III, 1888	
GRUVER (President), 1879-87	WILLIAM II, 1888	
CARNOT (President), 1887		

1 Victoria, 1837 —The young Queen was called to the throne at the age of eighteen. King William died early in the morning of the 20th of June 1837, and the Archbishop of Canterbury and the Lord Chamberlain left Windsor Castle soon after two o'clock, drove in all haste to Kensington Palace, reached it about five, and, ordering the

young Princess to be awakened, informed her that she was now **QUEEN OF ENGLAND**. She was received by her subjects with a feeling more akin to warm personal affection than to mere official loyalty, and every one seemed to feel a certain pride in the fair young girl who had been called to rule over the vast British Empire. On the 10th of February 1840, the Queen married her cousin, Prince Albert of Saxe-Coburg and Gotha,—a marriage which brought to her the greatest happiness, and which, when the nation came to know the Prince better, was generally acknowledged to have been of great benefit to the country. Prince Albert was a man of refined taste, large knowledge, benevolent aspirations, and just moderation of conduct. The rejoicings at the marriage throughout the kingdom were universal and enthusiastic.

(i) The young Queen met her Privy Council alone—without the supporting presence of her mother and relations, and she impressed every one with respect by her dignity and self-possession. She was young, inexperienced, ignorant of the world around her—for she had been brought up in the strictest privacy, but she went through the business of the Council in the coolest and most business-like way. Mr. Greville says: “As these two old men, her uncles (the Royal Dukes of Cumberland and Sussex) knelt before her swearing allegiance and kissing her hand, I saw her blush up to the eyes, as if she felt the contrast between their civil and their natural relations, and this was the only sign of emotion which she evinced. Her manner to them was very graceful and engaging, she kissed them both, and rose from her chair and moved towards the Duke of Sussex, who was farthest from her and too infirm to reach her.”

(ii) “She looked very well, and, though so small in stature, and without much pretension to beauty, the gracefulness of her manner and the good expression of her countenance give her on the whole a very agreeable appearance.” —GREVILLE.

(iii) The Duke of Wellington said: “If she had been my own daughter, I could not have wished her to behave better.”

(iv) In her first Speech, Queen Victoria said: “It will be my care to strengthen our institutions, civil and ecclesiastical, by discreet improvement wherever improvement is required, and to do all in my power to allay animosity and discord.”

2 The Corn Laws—The high price of corn had been for a long time severely felt by the labouring classes, and riots and agitation had broken out in many large towns. At length, in 1838, an Anti-Corn-Law League was formed in Manchester, with branches throughout the kingdom, and at the head of the movement were Richard Cobden and John Bright. They maintained that the daily bread of the people was the very last article upon which a tax should be laid,

and that free trade in every commodity whatever would conduce to the benefit of a great manufacturing and commercial nation like England. The party opposed to them, who were called Protectionists, argued that home agriculture and our own farmers ought to be encouraged and protected by keeping up the price of corn, and that it was highly inconvenient, especially in time of war, that this country should be dependent on any other for its supply of food. The orators of the League travelled up and down the country explaining their opinions, the land was covered with pamphlets and handbills urging and illustrating their views, and the cause of the League was making progress every month. It owed its triumph, however, to what appeared to be an accident. In the autumn of 1845 the potato crop had utterly failed in almost every county in Ireland, and as this was the chief food of the Irish people, a terrible famine threatened that country. At length, in 1846, the famine broke out, followed by a malignant fever, and the people died by thousands in their mud hovels, in the workhouses, and on the roadsides. Riots broke out in the towns. The sum of £10,000,000 was voted for the relief of Ireland, the corn laws were at once suspended, and Sir Robert Peel, the leader of the Conservatives, found himself obliged to bring in a Bill for the abolition of the duties on foreign corn, cattle, and other kinds of produce. This repeal was carried in 1846—a year which had been so wet that people everywhere said, “It rains repeal”, but the new law was not to come into operation until 1849. With this triumph came also the widespread diffusion of the doctrines of free trade—the chief of which is that every man should be free to buy in the cheapest market and to sell in the dearest, without any kind of restriction whatsoever. This it is believed is best for the buyer and best for the seller—best for the producer of goods, and best also for the consumer.

Famine in
Ireland
1846

Free Trade
in Corn
1849

(i) “In many places the wretched people were seated on the fences of their decaying gardens, wringing their hands, and wailing bitterly the destruction that had left them foodless.

(ii) An organisation was formed to feed the starving poor. “Neither ancient nor modern history,” says Sir C. Trevelyan, “can furnish a parallel to the fact that upwards of three millions of persons were fed every day in the neighbourhood of their own homes, by administrative arrangements emanating from and controlled by one central office.

(iii) On January 31st, 1840, a Public Banquet was given in the Free Trade Hall in Manchester, to celebrate the triumph of the Anti Corn Law League. Sir R. Peel's Bill was to become active law on February 1st. At a few minutes to twelve the band struck up, "There's a good time coming, boys!" The chorus was sung by two thousand voices. Then, when the clock struck twelve, the Chairman rose, and, amid profound silence, said "The good time has come!" Then the two thousand guests rose and filled the vast room with one mighty British cheer.

✓ 3 The Chartists—The Corn Law agitation was for cheap bread, the agitation of the Chartists was for political power. There had for some time been distress in many of the trades by which large numbers of working men live, and many of these men, dissatisfied with the limited arrangements of the Reform Bill, believed they saw, in still greater changes in the constitution of Parliament, the hope and the means of mending their present wretched condition. They likewise thought that the Reform Bill of 1832, though a good Bill as far as it went, was only one step in the direction of thorough and radical Reform. They accordingly drew up a "People's Charter," which consisted of "six points." The demands of that Charter were —

✓ (1) Universal Suffrage—that every man of the age of twenty-one and upwards should have a vote

✓ (2) Vote by Ballot—that all voting should be known only to the voter himself and to no others and that thus no intimidation—no undue or unfair influence—should be applied to the voter

✓ (3) Annual Parliaments—that a Parliament should last only one year, instead of seven, as they at present do, or may. This would make members more directly responsible to their constituents

✓ (4) The Payment of Members—that an M P should be paid for his services, thus allowing poor men to enter the House, if they could.

✓ (5) The abolition of the Property Qualification—that every man, whether he owned property or not, should be eligible for a seat in the House of Commons

✓ (6) Equal Electoral Districts—that the number of members should depend on the number of the population to be represented in each district. This would make the value of each vote equal

✓ (i) Of these "six points," the first, second, fifth, and sixth, have now been practically conceded

✓ (ii) There were two kinds of Chartists—Physical Force Chartists and Moral Force Chartists. The leader of the former was a violent Irishman, Fergus O'Connor, M P

(iii) In 1839, a Chartist riot headed by Mr Frost, a Justice of the Peace, took place at Newport, in Wales. The riot was put down, and Mr Frost imprisoned for several years.

4. The Year 1848—But in the year 1848, the hopes of the Chartists that they would carry all their points rose very high. It was a year of revolution all over the continent of Europe. Crowns were tottering or falling, kings flying from their capitals, and people thought that the age of the Universal Republic had at length arrived. Louis Philippe had escaped from Paris and crossed to Neyhaven in Sussex, under the name of Mr Smith, the Pope had fled from Rome, in the disguise of a footman, the king of Prussia was compelled to take an oath to a new constitution, the Hungarians rose in arms to free themselves from Austria, and the emperor of Austria and the king of Naples had to fly from their capitals to escape from the fury of their subjects.

The Year of
Revolution
1848.

The Chartists thought their day had come, and, mustering on Kennington Common (in the south of London) on the 10th of April 1848, they designed to march through London on the House of Commons, with a petition in their hands, containing five million signatures, and the determination in their heads to compel the House to yield to their demands. The Government called for a quarter of a million special constables, among whom Louis Napoleon, then a resident in London, enrolled himself, the Duke of Wellington posted soldiers and raised barricades at the most important points, guns were stationed at the bridges, and every precaution was adopted to make the threats of the Chartists unavailing. The leader called upon his hearers to rally round him, to cry, "Down with the Ministry!" "Dissolve the Parliament!" "The Charter!" and "No surrender!" But there was division in the Chartist councils, no one could lead, no one had made up his mind to fight, and the whole demonstration fell to the ground harmless and ineffective.

(i) "You have left one point unprotected—one way by which they could escape," said a member of the cabinet of 1848 to the Duke of Wellington. "That was precisely what I intended to do," replied the Duke. He was too good hearted and too sensible a man not to "build a golden bridge for a flying enemy", and he shuddered at the very thought of having to kill his fellow countrymen.

(ii) "The year 1848 will be memorable, not only for the Revolution of France, and its great example of extreme democratic opinions terminating, after a sanguinary struggle, in military despotism, but for the universal upheaving of the continental kingdoms in an earthquake of which the tremblings have not yet subsided"—KNIGHT

X 5 The Afghan War—From 1839 to 1842 a war raged in

Afghanistan¹ England had long felt a jealousy of Russia and the designs of Russia in the East, and who should rule the state of Afghanistan, which lies between India and Persia, was a matter of great importance to England, for Persia has generally been under the influence of St. Petersburg (1) Cabul, the Afghan capital, was taken, but the victors found the tables turned upon them, and that, though they had seized the city, they were themselves besieged and could not get out. A host of Afghans had surrounded them. Sir William Maenaughten, the British envoy, was invited with his officers to a conference, and there treacherously murdered by the Afghan leader himself, and the army left Cabul one cold winter morning—the snow a foot deep, and the thermometer below freezing-point—to march to Jellalabad, a distance of ninety miles. They had to march through the Khoord Cabul and the Khyber Passes, formidable defiles, five miles long, and shut in on either side by a line of lofty hills, “every point of which was alive with fierce and treacherous mountaineers.” In this pass alone about three thousand lives were lost. Inch by inch, foot by foot, hour after hour, day after day, the British army fought against countless hordes until it had dwindled down to twenty muskets. At short intervals the Afghans made simultaneous rushes from the two sides and committed wholesale slaughter. One morning the officers on the ramparts of Jellalabad saw “a solitary mounted man come reeling, tottering on,” unable to sit up, he made his way clinging to the neck of his pony, and a party of cavalry sent out to succour him, brought him in wounded, exhausted, and half dead. This was Dr. Brydone, the sole survivor of an army of sixteen thousand men, he had come to tell the story of the massacre of a whole British army.

(1) The Afghans, in 1838, received a Russian Envoy at Cabul, we sent a message to Dost Mohammed, the Amir of Afghanistan, requesting him to dismiss the Russian. He refused, English troops were sent into the country from India, and they seized Cabul, Candahar, and Ghazni—three towns that command the passes into India.

Afghanistan is a country about twice the size of Great Britain and Ireland and lying along the North West border of India. It consists of high arid mountain lands with a few fertile valleys. The people are divided into tribes or clans each with its own chief and its own government. Nothing is finer than their physique or worse than their morals.

(ii) It was Akbar Khan, the son of Dost Mohammed, who deceived the English by offering them a safe conduct from Cabul to the Indian frontier.

Stan is an Eastern suffix which means *country*. Thus *Beloochistan* is the country of the Belooches etc.

' When the garrison of Jellalabad were busy on the works tilling with axe and shovel with their arms piled and their accoutrements laid out close at hand, a sentry on the ramparts, looking out towards the Cabul road saw a solitary white-faced horseman struggling on towards the fort. The word was passed the tidings spread. Presently the ramparts were lined with officers looking out with throbbing hearts through unsteady telescopes as with straining eyes tracing the road. Slowly and painfully as though horse and rider were both in an extremity of mortal weakness the solitary mounted man came reeling tottering on. They saw that he was an Englishman. On a wretched weary pony clinging as one sick or wounded to its neck he sat or rather leaned, forward, and there were those who as they watched his progress thought that he could never reach unaided the walls of Jellalabad. A shudder ran through the garrison. That solitary horseman looked like the messenger of death. Few doubted that he was the bearer of intelligence that would fill their souls with horror and dismay. Their worst forebodings seemed confirmed. There was the one man who was to tell the story of the massacre of a great army. A party of cavalry were sent out to succour him. They brought him in wounded exhausted half dead. The messenger was Dr Brydono and he now reported his belief that he was the sole survivor of an army of sixteen thousand men '—KYLE

6 War in Sind.—In 1843 a war with the Amirs of Sind (round the mouth and lower courses of the river Indus) broke out. After several battles, in which the great Charles Napier broke the power of the chiefs, the country was annexed to the British Empire by the Governor-General of India. All the chiefs were taken prisoners, with the exception of one, who escaped only to die in exile. North-east of Sind, and higher up the Indus, lies the country of the Five Waters, generally known as the Punjab. The Sikhs, who inhabited this country, a nation of hardy Highlanders, made an unprovoked attack on an English force, and war broke out. The English army was commanded by Sir Hugh Gough and Sir Henry Hardinge, and—by the three splendid victories of Ferozeshah, Aliwal, and Soobraon—the country was subdued, and a treaty of peace was signed at its capital of Lahore. The Second Sikh, or Punjab, War broke out in 1848, but the victory of Goojerat, won by Lord Gough in 1849, for ever broke the terrible power of the Sikhs, and annexed the vast territory of the Punjab to the British dominions.

The Sind
War
1843

The Sikh
Wars
1848,
1849

(a) The five rivers are the Indus, Jhelum, Chenab, Ravi, and Sutlej.

(b) This word is a compound of two Hindu or Sanscrit words *pun* five and *ab* a river. The word *pun* we have in our *punch*—a liquor which contains five elements—*vine*, brandy, lemon, sugar, and water—and *ab* is the same as our name for a river *Ar-on*. There are fourteen Arons in Great Britain.

(i) Major Outram, with one hundred British soldiers, held out for some time against 8000 Sindh warriors, and ultimately withdrew his troops in safety.

(ii) Sir Charles Napier, one of the greatest generals England has ever produced, fought the battles of Meeanee and Hyderabad, and by these battles subdued the country of Sind, which is now part of British India.

(iii) The Sikhs were magnificent warriors, and were generally in the proportion of three to one. The Battle of Soobraon was, as an exploit, one of the most daring ever

achieved, by which, in open day, a triple line of breastworks, flanked by formidable redoubts, bristling with artillery, manned by thirty two regular regiments of infantry, was assaulted and carried

(iv) About a month before the Battle of Goojerat, there was fought, by Lord Gough the Battle of Chillianwallah, in which there was a most terrible slaughter, and both sides claimed the victory

(v) The month after, March 1849, the Punjab was annexed, and the Maharajah Dhuleep Singh was handsomely pensioned and sent over to England.

Rajah=rex (reg s) and *maha*=*mag* nus (great) Hence Maharajah means Great King (or Emperor)

7 The Great Exhibition—It occurred to the thoughtful and benevolent mind of Prince Albert that an Exhibition of the Works of All Nations would have the result of making known to us the points in which the manufactures and commerce of Great Britain were strongest, and those in which they were weakest, and that such a meeting would probably do something to promote the desire for peace and industry throughout the civilised world, while the people of England would learn a new love for art and science, and for the triumphs of labour. Mr Paxton, the head gardener at Chatsworth, the seat of the Duke of Devonshire, sent in a design for a palace of glass and iron, which was erected in Hyde Park. It was nearly two thousand feet long, covered a space of more than eighteen acres, and overarched several large elm-trees, one hundred thousand persons visited it in a single day, and more than half a million pounds sterling was paid by the public for admission. Contributions of manufactures, or of produce, came from every land on the face of the globe, and visitors of every known nation came from the ends of the earth to see this new thing. This Exhibition of 1851 undoubtedly gave a great impulse to the improvement of every kind of manufacture and all the mechanical arts, and it induced other nations to follow the bright example. Exhibitions, very much larger and more extensive than the first, have been since held in Paris, Dublin, and Vienna, and the largest of all took place at Paris in 1889, to commemorate the hundredth anniversary of the French Revolution.

(i) Enthusiastic persons thought that the Great Exhibition was to mark the opening of a millennium of peace and that the nations would give up making war on each other, and try to rival each other in peaceful arts and industries. In December of the same year—1851—Louis Napoleon carried out his *coup d'etat*, made himself Emperor in 1852, and declared war against Austria in 1859. Since the year 1851, the so-called "Year of Peace," there have been more terrible wars in Europe and

America than ever took place before and of these the bloodiest was the American Civil War of 1861-65, and the Franco German War of 1870-71

(ii) The glass and iron building of the Great Exhibition now stands, very much enlarged and improved, —the "Crystal Palace"—on Sydenham Hill, near Norwood

8 The Crimean War—The Turks and Russians had had for many years a standing quarrel about the Holy Places in Jerusalem—a quarrel which Russia had always kept open, for the purpose of furthering her own ends. Suddenly, without any formal declaration of war, the Russian army crossed the Pruth into Moldavia, and the sword was drawn. England and France—Napoleon III was then Emperor—both took the side of Turkey, and assisted her with their fleets and their armies. Fleets were sent both to the Black and the Baltic Seas, and armies to the Danube and the Crimea. The operations in the Baltic were little better than a blockade, the Russians would not come out in the summer, and could not come out in the winter. Soon after the successful defence of Silistria by the Turks, the Crimea—a beautiful peninsula in the north-east of the Black Sea—became the chief theatre of war. The united French and English armies, which amounted to fifty-one thousand men, met an army of fifty thousand Russians occupying a strong position on the steep slopes of the river Alma. Under showers of shot and shell, which "tore the river into foam" with its deadly hail, our men crossed the stream, swarmed up the heights, took the Russian guns, and in a few hours the Russians had fled, leaving eight thousand dead or wounded on the field of battle.

(i) Nicholas, the Czar of Russia—as the Head of the Greek Church—claimed the right of protecting all Christians, especially Greek Christians, in Turkey. This right, if admitted by the Sultan, would have given him the power of interfering in Turkish affairs whenever he chose.

(ii) Sebastopol was then, and is now, the arsenal of the Black Sea. It is to that sea what Malta is to the Mediterranean, and Portsmouth is to the English Channel.

(iii) The Alma is a river in the west of the Crimea, which the ALLIED ARMY had to cross before they could reach and besiege Sebastopol.

Lord Raglan gave orders for our whole line to advance. Up rose those serried masses and passing through a fearful shower of round case shot and shell they dashed into the Alma, and floundered through the waters which were literally torn into foam by the deadly hail. Highlanders' said Sir Colin Campbell. I am going to ask a favour of you. It is that you will act so as to justify me in asking permission of the Queen for you to wear a bonnet! Don't pull a trigger till you're within a yard of the Russians"—DR. PUSSELL.

9 Balaklava—The Allies then marched to the south of the strong fortress of Sebastopol, and took up a position in front of the enemy's

walls, with Balaklava—a port about six miles off—as their base. The English lines at Balaklava, as held by the smallest number of men, were first attacked by the Russians. Their heavy masses broke through the weak lines with ease, when a single Highland regiment—the 93d—deployed in a “thin red line” only two men deep, and by the skilful use of their rifles stopped the advance of the enemy. It was in this battle, too, that “a blunder of some one” brought out a display of valour such as the world has seldom seen. An error in the pointing¹ of an order caused the Earl of Cardigan to charge a Russian battery with his Light Brigade. They swept across a plain, while the cannon-shot was playing terribly on their advancing lines, they took the battery and sired the gunners, they beat off the Russian cavalry behind the battery, when, turning to retrace their course, they were met by fresh bodies of cavalry, infantry, and artillery, and had to cut their way through dense masses of armed men. Of six hundred troopers, only about two hundred came back.² “At the distance of twelve hundred yards,” says Dr Russell, “the whole line of the enemy belched forth, from thirty iron mouths, a flood of smoke and flame, through which lusted the deadly balls.”

“Stormed at with shot and shell,
While horse and hero fell
They that had fought so well
Came through the jaws of Death,
Back from the mouth of Hell,
All that was left of them,
Left of six hundred.”

(1) Balaklava was the port into which all provisions and ammunition came from England, and it was of the highest importance for the Russians to get possession of it.

(2) “The Russian gunners, when the storm of cavalry passed, returned to their guns. They saw their own cavalry mingled with the troopers who had just ridden over them, and, to the eternal disgrace of the Russian name, the miscreants poured a murderous volley of grape and canister on the mass of struggling men and horses, mingling friend and foe in one common ruin.—RUSSELL

10 Inkermann—The Battle of Inkermann was a battle which still more plainly showed the path and the backbone of the British soldier. Early on a dark November morning in 1854, in a drizzling rain, heavy masses of Russian infantry, supported by ninety guns, as

¹ The punctuation. A comma had been put in the wrong place.

² The regiment numbered 607. 409 fell and only 198 escaped.

well as by those on the works of Sebastopol and on the Russian ships in the harbour, fell upon the English lines, and took from us several strong redoubts and a number of guns. Eight thousand British troops, helped by six thousand French, retook the heights and the guns, and for a whole day held them against a Russian force more than three times their own number. Plan there was none on the side of the British, all that was done was done by sheer physical force and unyielding valour, and the Battle of Inkermann is known in history as the "Soldiers' Battle."

(i) The Battle of Inkermann was in many places a hand to hand fight. The Russians are said to have lost, in killed and wounded, 8000 out of 50,000 men who were engaged.

(ii) During the severe winter of the Crimea, our troops—who had arrived without proper preparation—suffered terribly from the want of proper food and shelter. The Czar Nicholas had before trusted much to his own generals; but he believed now in the power of "Generals January and February." All our soldiers could wish for was only six miles off, in the ships lying in the harbour of Balaklava, but the intervening six miles had been for some time only a sea of mud. At length rails and a locomotive engine were sent out: a railway was made, provisions and huts were brought rapidly up, and the troops were well fed and comfortably housed. But the sufferings of our troops overthrew the Government of Lord Aberdeen, who was replaced by Lord Palmerston.

11 The Capture of Sebastopol—On the 2d of March 1855, the Emperor Nicholas died of an illness brought on by grief and disappointment, and his son, Alexander II, succeeded to his troubles, dangers, and difficulties. After long and difficult siege operations, the Russians were obliged to evacuate Sebastopol. On the 8th of September 1855, they sank all their line-of-battle ships in the harbour, blew up their magazines, set fire to the whole town, and left for their enemies nothing but piles of blood-stained ruins. The siege had lasted three hundred and forty-nine days, and, with the taking of Sebastopol,¹ the war came practically to an end. Peace was not, however, made till next year, when the Treaty of Paris was signed. The Crimean War cost England alone £33,000,000.

(i) "A series of tremendous explosions in the arsenals, and numerous fires, proclaimed about the same time that the enemy was preparing to have the doomed city. Wandering fires gleamed through the streets and outskirts of the town—point after point became alight—the flames shone out of the windows of the houses—rows of mansions caught and were burnt up, and before daybreak the town of Sebastopol, that

¹ From the Greek *Sebastos*, august or reverend, and *polis*, city. The whole means the City of the Emperor.

fine and stately mistress of the Tuxine, on which we had so often turned a longing eye, was on fire from the sea to the Dock and Creek"—RESERIE.

(ii) The approaches of the British and French, often cut through the rock by gun powder, had an extent of fully 50 miles

12 The Indian Mutiny (i)—The native princes of India had for some time been filled with the fear that England had resolved to deprive them of all their dominions and all their power. Lord Dalhousie, who had been appointed Governor General in 1848, carried out the policy of annexation with unsparing hand, and his last feat of this kind was the seizure of the kingdom of Oude. But the native soldiers or sepoys had been much encouraged, their letters were carried free, each private soldier had his servant, and a tie as strong as the tie of clanship existed between them and the colonels of their regiments. The native princes, however, had diligently instilled into the minds of these native soldiers of the East India Company's army, that the English Government had resolved to make all of them Christians by forcing them to lose their caste, and that certain cartridges, greased with cow fat and hogs lard, were to be the means of carrying out this criminal purpose. These cartridges were first distributed at Meerut, on the 10th of May 1857. The men to whom they were offered refused to touch them, and were carried off to prison. Their comrades broke into the prison and freed their friends, and, after setting fire to several houses and murdering some Europeans, they marched to Delhi, and proclaimed the native king of Delhi Emperor of Hindustan.

(i) There had also existed and been current in India a prophecy that the dominion of the English should last for only a hundred years. That dominion dated from the Battle of Plassey, which was fought in 1757.

(ii) The mixture of animal fats was intended, it was said, to degrade and discaste the two great religions of India—that of the Hindus, who revered the cow, and that of the Mohammedans, who loathed the pig.

(iii) The king of Delhi was a descendant of the Great Mogul and, in setting him up as Emperor, the rebels thought that they were re-establishing the ancient empire of the Moguls.

THE GREAT MOGUL was the name given to the Indian Prince who was descended from the great conqueror of India TIMOUR THE TARTAR, the firebrand of the universe. One of his successors made himself Emperor of India, with the seat of government at Delhi. In 1739 Nadir Shah attacked Delhi, sacked it, and shook the Mogul Empire to its foundations. In 1857 the Great Mogul was seized and banished to Burma, and his two sons were shot, in the midst of a large crowd of followers, by Captain Hodson of "Hodson's Horse" with his own hands.

13 The Indian Mutiny (ii)—Three weeks after, on the 31st of May, the native troops at Lucknow also mutinied, and the two

capitals, Lucknow and Delhi, became the centres of the insurrection. The massacre through treachery of British troops by a Mahratta chief called Nana Sahib, at Cawnpore, the fearful butchery of women and children, whose mutilated bodies were thrown down a well, and the danger in which small numbers of Europeans were placed in lonely stations, stirred the heart of this country with grief and fear for those who were dear to them. The British garrison at Lucknow was surrounded, and Sir Henry Lawrence had received his death-wound when Sir Henry Havelock and Sir James Outram marched to its relief. These two generals made their way into the Residency, but, with the burden of women and children, could not cut their way out again. Sir Colin Campbell, who had started from London at half-an-hour's notice, took command of all the British troops he could muster, and, forcing his way into Lucknow, brought off the garrison, together with the sick and wounded, the women and children, in perfect safety—Delhi was taken, and the last act of the rebellion closed with the fall of Bareilly on the 7th of May 1858. For his great services in quelling the Indian Mutiny, Sir Colin Campbell was created Lord Clyde, and afterwards raised to the rank of Field-Marshal, and, on the 2d of August of the same year, the Government of India was transferred by Act of Parliament from the East India Company to the Queen of England, who, about twenty years after, in 1876, was created EMPRESS OF INDIA.

(i) Cawnpore is a large city of the North West Provinces, on the right bank of the Ganges. At the outbreak of the mutiny it contained about 1000 Europeans, of whom 560 were women and children.

(a) 'At the time of the mutiny Nana Sahib was about thirty six years of age. His complexion was sallow, his features strongly marked and not unpleasing. Like all Mahrattas both head and face were shaven clean. He was fat, with that unhealthy corpulence which marks the Eastern voluptuary.'—*TRAVELER*

(b) Not urn nor monolith nor broken column is so fit a monument for brave men as the crumbling breastwork and the battered wall. And, in like manner the dire agony of Cawnpore needs not to be figured in marble or cast into granite or cast of bronze. There is no fear lest we should forget the story of our people. The whole place is their tomb and the name thereof is their epitaph. Where the traveller from Allahabad rousing himself to learn at what stage of his journey he may have arrived is aware of a voice proclaiming through the darkness the city of melancholy fame—then those accents heard for the first time on the very spot itself which they designate recall more vividly than written or engraven eloquence the memory of fruitless valour and unutterable woe.'—*TRAVELER*
Cawnpore

(ii) Lucknow, the capital of Oude, stands on the Goomtee, a tributary of the Ganges. The relief of Lucknow was one of the most brilliant operations in a war that was filled with actions of the noblest and most daring character.

(iii) Sir Colin Campbell, asked by the War Minister of the day, at what time he could

be ready to start for India, quietly replied that, if they could give him half an hour to pack up his things, he thought he could be ready then

(iv) Delhi was taken chiefly by the bravery and untiring exertions of the Sikh troops, who had been conquered by us only a few years before (in 1849).

(v) Bareilly, on the Ramganga, east of Delhi, was the last place to hold out. It was taken in May 1858

(vi) Queen Victoria was proclaimed EMPRESS OF INDIA (Kaiser-i-Hind), on January 1, 1877, at Delhi—the centre of the rebellion.

The name Kaiser-i-Hind contains three elements: (a) a Latin *Kaiser* (= Caesar), (b) a Persian *i* (= of) and (c) an Aryan *Hind* (= India). The Aryan settlers coming from the plateau of Iran called the first river they met *Sindhu* (= the goat) now *Indus*, and the country beyond, *Sindya*, now *Sind*.

14 Our Relations with France—Napoleon III was on the throne of France from the year 1851 to 1870. His relations with Britain were always friendly, but in 1858 an event occurred which was nearly bringing about a rupture. Napoleon had incurred the hostility and the vengeance of a band of Italian conspirators, called the Carbonari. They had tried him in secret, found him guilty of treason to their society (of which he had been sworn a member), and deputed three men to go to Paris and put him to death. Of these three Orsini was chief. The plot failed. The bombshells had been made and prepared in London, the conspirators had lived in London for some time, and the French soldiers looked upon London as a centre of conspiracies. A number of French colonels sent an address to the Emperor, asking that they might be allowed to invade England, and "rout out this nest of treasons." Napoleon was so ill-advised as to publish this fiery address in the *Moniteur*—the official organ of the French Government. In England, on the other hand, Lord Palmerston was so ill-advised as to bring into Parliament his Conspiracy to Murder Bill. But both the nation and Parliament were too much disgusted by the threatening language of the French officers, the Bill was thrown out, and the reply to the threats of the French was the starting up of the British Volunteers. Their motto was and is, "Defence not Defiance." The very next year, however, in 1860, a Treaty of Commerce, which had been negotiated by an able statesman, Richard Cobden, was signed between France and England.

(i) Three bombs were thrown at the carriage of the Emperor and Empress. Neither of these personages was hurt, but about twenty bystanders were wounded.

(ii) Mr Cobden's French Treaty had the effect of removing heavy duties on French

silk and French wine, and it is from this date that cheap French wines began to come into this country

(III) In the end of 1841, the Prince Consort (Prince Albert) died, to the intense grief and sorrow of the Queen, and to the great regret of her subjects. Since their marriage in 1840 he had been the chief confidential adviser of the Queen.

15 The Work of Parliament (i) —The First Parliament of Queen Victoria was a continuation of the last Parliament of William IV, under the administration of Lord Melbourne. It was dissolved two months after the accession of the Queen, and did nothing worthy of any remark. —The Second Parliament was summoned for the end of the year. It occupied itself with the much-needed amelioration of the criminal code, and it passed two Regency Acts. It also approved of Rowland Hill's new Postage Scheme (1839), and allowed it to appear as part of the Budget. This year of 1839 also saw the beginning of National Education, as it placed the management of the Education Grant under the control of a Committee of the Privy Council, and compelled those schools that were aided by the State to submit to the inspection of the State. —The Third Parliament of this reign contained a large majority of Conservatives, and Sir Robert Peel was called upon to form a Ministry. The time of this Parliament was almost wholly taken up with financial questions. In the year 1842 Peel was able to carry his Corn-Law Act, by which a duty, according to a "sliding scale," was put upon corn, the lower the price of wheat, the higher the duty, and contrariwise. He also imposed, for the first time, an Income-Tax on all incomes, from whatever source derived, that rose above £150 a year. In 1846 he was successful enough, aided by the earnest and "unadorned eloquence" of Richard Cobden, and also by the powerful speeches of John Bright, to carry his great measure for the Repeal of the Corn-Laws, and he thus established in this country Free Trade in corn.

(i) Transportation was substituted for capital punishment in cases of forgery and the lighter offences (where life was not endangered).

(ii) The First Regency Act empowered the Lord Justices to administer the affairs of the realm, until the arrival of the then heir, Prince Ernest of Hanover. The Second Regency Act, of 1840 (the Queen married in 1840), named Prince Albert as Regent in the event of the death of the Queen.

(iii) The First Education Grant (1833) was £20,000, and it was paid by the Treasury to the National Society (Established Church), and to the British and Foreign School Society (Nonconformist). In 1839 it was increased to £30,000. (It is now more than one hundred times this.)

(iv) In five Lancashire towns, with a population of nearly a million only 27,000 children went to school

(v) The duty on corn, according to the Sliding Scale, was never to be more than 20s, or less than 1s a quarter. It was to be 20s when wheat fell to 51s a quarter, and only 1s when it rose to 73s. The purpose was manifestly to keep the price to consumers somewhere about 71s or 74s

(vi) By the Corn Act of 1846, the duty was to be completely abolished in three years. 'Peel passed this last measure of his political life amid the reproaches and execrations of his own party'

16 The Work of Parliament (ii)—The Fourth Parliament of Victoria met in 1847, under the Prime Ministership of Lord John Russell. It took another step in the direction of complete Free Trade, and repealed the Navigation Laws, and it also passed the Ecclesiastical Titles Act, which was destined to remain a dead letter.—The Fifth Parliament met in 1852, under the Coalition Ministry of Lord Aberdeen. Its time was chiefly occupied with the management of the Crimean War, which began in 1854, and its only legislative achievement of any importance was the passing of the Corrupt Practices Act. The mismanagement of the war brought about the resignation of Lord Aberdeen,¹ neither Lord John Russell nor Lord Derby was able to form an administration, and Lord Palmerston became Prime Minister. In the midst of war, the agitations of war and the preoccupations of war, Parliament contrived to pass a small but very useful measure—the final repeal of the duty of one penny upon newspapers,—an act which had the effect of making cheap newspapers possible, and therefore of bringing political and social news into the cottage of the poorest labourer. It also passed a much higher vote for education in the Budget—a vote which reached £451,000.—The Sixth Parliament met in April 1857—just a few weeks before the outbreak of the Indian Mutiny. It met under Lord Palmerston, but this statesman was defeated on his Conspiracy to Murder Bill, and had to give place to Lord Derby. Its chief achievement was the passing of the India Act. Among its minor labours may be mentioned a Bill for the abolition of the "property qualification" in the case of members of parliament, and a small Bribery Act.

(i) The Pope had divided England into sees and ecclesiastical districts, and appointed archbishops and bishops with the titles of their sees. He was, however,

¹ A vote of censure on the Government was brought into the House by Mr Roebuck and passed by a majority of 157 and Lord Aberdeen resigned.

careful not to take any title that was actually in use by a bishop of the Church of England. The Bill imposed a fine of £100 on all persons who should adopt and use such titles, no one paid any attention the titles were conferred and used, the fines were never exacted and the Act itself was repealed in 1871

(u) The chief clauses of the Corrupt Practices Act, compelled (a) all candidates to spend money only through their authorised agent, and (b) to publish after the election a full account of all they had spent.

(uu) Along with the increase in the Education Vote, the Government gave the charge of schools to the Vice-President of the Council, who in this way became a kind of Minister of Education.

(iv) The old "property qualification" for M P s was the possession of property to the amount of £500 This was frequently evaded

(v) The Bribery Act allowed a candidate for Parliament to pay the travelling expenses of a voter—but nothing more

17 Great Men—The most prominent men in politics and statesmanship during the first part of this reign were Lord Melbourne, Sir Robert Peel, Lord John Russell (afterwards Earl Russell), Lord Stanley (afterwards Earl of Derby), Lord Palmerston, Richard Cobden, John Bright, and Daniel O'Connell. Sir Robert Peel and Lord John Russell, the one on the Conservative, the other on the Liberal, side of politics, were statesmen who gave their time and thoughts to great constructive measures for the benefit, not of a class, but of the whole country, while Cobden and Bright spent the best part of their lives in procuring cheap food for the people, and in advocating free trade. Daniel O'Connell strove for the rights of the Irish People, but he advocated what the English Parliament never would think of granting—the Repeal of the Union between Great Britain and Ireland. The Earl of Aberdeen, a man of good abilities but of hesitative character, conducted—and misconducted—the Crimean War. Lord Palmerston was one of the greatest foreign ministers England has ever seen

(i) Lord Melbourne was the statesman who trained Queen Victoria to her duties as a sovereign. He was no Reformer his most frequent observation was, "Can't you let it alone?"

(ii) The Earl of Derby had as his chief supporter Mr Benjamin Disraeli (afterwards Earl of Beaconsfield)

(iii) Daniel O'Connell held the same relation to the Irish People in the early part of this reign, that Mr C S Parnell does at the present time

(iv) Lord Palmerston was an Irish Peer, but, as he did not present himself for election to the British House of Peers, he was eligible for the House of Commons. He sat for Tiverton

CHAPTER VII

VICTORIA

PART II

1 **The Cotton Famine**—The great Civil War which broke out in the United States in 1861, and which lasted about five years, had a very important influence upon the well-being of England. The stoppage of all communication with the Southern States, in which alone cotton was grown, produced a cotton famine in the kingdom. This was of course most severely felt in Lancashire, where millions of people earn their livelihood by spinning and weaving cotton, and, at the period of its greatest severity, about half a million of persons in that large and wealthy county were entirely dependent on funds received from charity. The weekly loss of wages amounted to £160,000. Nearly three millions of money were raised to succour those who had been thrown out of work by no fault of their own, and who endured their privations and sufferings without a murmur.

(i) The Government at Washington (of the Northern States) ordered the blockade of the Confederate ports (of the Southern States), and this quite cut off our supply of cotton.

(ii) In Lancashire hundreds of thousands of persons were thrown out of work, and many were starving. The climax of distress was probably reached in December of 1862, when nearly 500,000 persons were dependent on charitable or on parochial funds.

(iii) The money raised as a Relief Fund amounted to £2,735,000, of which about a million and a half was raised in Lancashire alone.

(iv) The United States, during the greatest pressure of the famine, sent two ships laden with provisions for the relief of the Lancashire operatives.

2 **Reform and Ireland**.—Lord Palmerston had been Prime Minister from 1859 till his death in 1865. He had busied himself most with foreign affairs, he had managed the House of Commons with great skill and tact, and he had always quietly opposed any

great organic changes. But his death proved the signal for new demands for parliamentary reform, Mr Gladstone was leader of the House in 1866, Earl Russell being Prime Minister, and the former insisted on bringing in a Reform Bill. It was thrown out, the Ministry resigned, Lord Derby became Prime Minister, and his new leader Mr Disraeli, carried the Reform Bill of 1867 with a few changes on the original draught which had been introduced by Mr Gladstone in 1866—A more serious matter was now on the hands of the Government. The Fenians, a secret organisation in Ireland, began to show signs of great activity, and Mr Gladstone, by way of reply, brought forward his proposals for the disestablishment of the Irish Church. These could not be carried during the administration of Mr Disraeli, who was Prime Minister in 1868, Parliament was dissolved, and Mr Gladstone took the chief place in the Government, with a majority of more than a hundred Liberals in the House of Commons. By the aid of this majority the Irish Church Act became law. The same Parliament passed an Irish Land Act, by which Irish tenants received the power of selling their tenant-right and their unexhausted improvements to another.

(i) The outrages which "called the attention of Parliament to the condition of Ireland were (a) the rescue of Fenian prisoners at Manchester by a band of Fenians armed with revolvers, (b) the blowing up of the wall of Clerkenwell prison to aid the escape of a Fenian who was taking exercise in the yard—the explosion killed twelve persons, and (c) the attempt to seize the stand of arms in Chester Castle.

(ii) The Irish Church Act disestablished the Church of England in Ireland. The Church thus became a Free Episcopal Church. The clergy were fully compensated for the loss of their life interests, and the remaining part of the funds was allotted to the relief of unavoidable suffering.

(iii) By the Irish Land Act of 1870 (a) Ulster Tenant Right and other customs of long standing received a legal status and recognition (b) the tenant could obtain compensation for disturbance, and (c) compensation was also given for unexhausted improvements.

(iv) The same Parliament (the Ninth of Victoria) also passed in 1870 the Elementary Education Act (England), which was brought in and carried by the earnest and thoughtful efforts of an able statesman, W. E. Forster. The chief object of this Bill was the creation of School Boards in all parts of England where they were needed. Most of the large towns and cities of England have now School Boards.

(v) The same Parliament also passed a University Test Act and a Ballot Act. The former allowed Nonconformists and Catholics to study at the two great Universities—the latter made all voting for a member of Parliament perfectly secret.

3 Minor Wars in Africa (1) —Great Britain, during the long reign of Queen Victoria, was—with the exception of the Crimean struggle against Russia—never engaged in war with any of the great powers. But she has always some little war on hand, and, as her Empire stretches over all parts of the globe, she has had to do more than her share of fighting for the purpose of restoring and keeping the peace in many distant places. In the early part of the reign, Britain had, in South Africa, to go through two Kaffir wars, the latter of which lasted from 1850 to 1853. Disputes on the Cape Coast, in 1874, between the king of Ashanti and some of our allies, obliged us to send an expedition against him. Sir Garnet Wolseley marched from the coast through a dense forest, took Coomassie, burnt it, and re-embarked his men at twelve o'clock of the very day on which he had promised to leave.—The Zulu war of 1879 was undertaken to drive back the hardy warriors of King Cetewayo. It began in disaster of the most terrible kind—it ended in the capture of the Zulu king, and the complete subjugation of his people.—Disputes with the Boers of South Africa also led to a series of petty wars.—But by far the most important operations of war in Africa took place in Egypt in the year 1882. Britain, as the Guardian of the Water-ways of the World, has always felt it both her duty and her interest to keep the water high-way to India safe from all chance of injury. She accordingly, in 1875, purchased from the then Khedive of Egypt shares in the Suez Canal to the value of £4,000,000. The oppression of the Fellaheen from the grinding taxes they had to pay, to meet the interest on the loans raised in France and England, roused the indignation of many patriotic Egyptians, at the head of whom Arabi, an officer in the Egyptian army, placed himself. Arabi led an army into Alexandria, raised earthworks, and mounted powerful guns. Egypt was at this time under the joint protectorate of France and Britain, but France held aloof from interfering with Arabi. We, determined not to leave the property, and perhaps even the very existence, of the Suez Canal, to the tender mercies of an Egyptian rebel, sent out a fleet under Sir B. Seymour and an army under Sir Garnet Wolseley. Seymour bombarded Alexandria, and knocked Arabi's fortifications to pieces, Wolseley put the army of Arabi completely to rout at Tel-el-Kebir.

(1) The disaster of *Isandula* was the most memorable incident of the Zulu War. An

English regiment, under Colonel Durnford, was nearly annihilated by the Zulus, armed with assegais.

(ii) The gallant defence of Rorke's Drift was some compensation for the slaughter of Isandula. Lieutenants Chard and Bromhead, with only eighty men of the 24th regiment, fought all night an army of four thousand Zulus from behind a barricade hastily constructed of logs and biscuit-tins. The Zulus were armed with the rifles they had taken at Isandula.

(iii) Prince Louis Napoleon, the only child of the ex Empress of the French, was killed in the Zulu War in 1879.

Fellaken is the plural of *Fellak*, the Egyptian name for peasant.

4. *Minor Wars in Africa* (ii) —Meanwhile, another and a greater danger was approaching from the far South—from the Soudan. A Mohammedan religious leader or "Messiah," with the title of "The Mahdi," hoisted the green banner of the Prophet, proclaimed a religious war against the Egyptians, and attracted to his side thousands of fanatical Mohammedans. He annihilated an Egyptian army under General Hicks (Hicks Pasha), he laid siege to the towns held by Egyptian garrisons, he threatened Khartoum—a strong position at the meeting of the Blue and the White Nile. A great and enthusiastic soldier, General Gordon (commonly called "Chinese Gordon," from his having suppressed the dangerous Tac-Ping rebellion in China), was sent out to put down the Mahdi. Alone, or almost alone, he made his way through Africa and threw himself into Khartoum. The people hailed him as "Sultan and Saviour of Kordofan," but his powers and his influence were gradually sapped by treachery, and, before aid could reach him from England, he was murdered in the city he had striven to save—At other points in the Soudan there was heavy fighting. The Hadendowas ("Fuzzy-Wuzzy") are among the most daring soldiers in the world, and their unhesitating belief in their Prophet Mohammed inspired them to throw themselves upon our squares, in spite of Remington rifles and the deadly hail of Gatling mitrailleuses, and they sometimes—as at El-Teb—succeeded in doubling up a British square. The British forces at length prevailed, and peace and order once more reigned in most of the Soudan.

"Warrior of God, man's friend, not laid below,
But somewhere dead, far in the waste Soudan,
Thou livest in all hearts, for all men know
This earth has borne no simpler, nobler man."—TERNYSON

5 Turkey and Great Britain—Eastern affairs have for many generations occupied the time of Parliament and filled the thoughts of English statesmen. Russia has long had an eye on Constantinople, the most lovely site in Europe for a capital, and at one time the *entrepôt* of trade between the East and the West. The policy of England is to keep that site out of Russian hands, and to allow the maturing of political circumstances and the growth of young nations in the Balkan Peninsula to produce the result—peaceably, if possible—that it shall become the capital of the modern kingdom of Greece. In 1876 the Bulgarians had risen against the cruelty and oppression of their Turkish masters, the Bashi Bazouks (Turkish Irregulars) were sent into Bulgaria, where they slaughtered men, women, and children, these “Bulgarian atrocities” excited the indignation of civilised Europe, and the sympathy of the Russians, and a Russian army invaded Turkey in the spring of 1877. The Turks fought—especially at Plevna—with the most heroic daring and the most tenacious valour, but the greater numbers and superior military skill of the Russians at length bore down the Ottoman troops. The Russians marched to within a



Turkey (white) in 1840

day's journey of Constantinople, but the action of Lord Beaconsfield compelled them to submit their claims on, and their arrangements with, Turkey to the arbitrament of the Great Powers of Europe.

Berlin
A Con- Treaty
gress was 1878

held at Berlin; Lord Beaconsfield attended it in person, he assisted in cutting down Turkey—in-

Europe to very narrow limits, and he secured for England the possession of Cyprus. This was done by the famous Treaty of Berlin.

(i) The Bulgarian Atrocities brought Mr Gladstone out of the retirement into which he had betaken himself after his defeat in the General Election of 1874, and, from the date of 1876, he gave Mr Disraeli's government no peace

(ii) Turkey had, in the year 1640, held the whole of South eastern Europe as far north as Pressburg and had even threatened Vienna and the existence of Austria. But, since that date, she has been gradually pressed back, more and more to the south, until now she holds in Europe only a narrow strip of country between the Black Sea and the Adriatic. She has lost, in succession, Bessarabia, Roumania, Bosnia, Servia, Bulgaria, and Eastern Roumelia, Thessaly, etc.



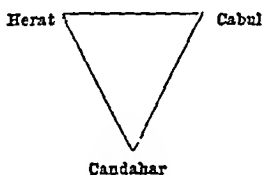
Turkey (white) in 1878.

(iii) The ordinary world considered the cutting out of so many countries a process of amputation, Lord Beaconsfield, with grave humour, called it "a concentration of the powers" of Turkey

6 The Afghan War—Russia, checked in her designs on Turkey by the Treaty of Berlin, now turned her attention to Afghanistan, and endeavoured to brew trouble for us on the borders of our Indian Empire. In 1878 she sent an envoy to Cabul, Lord Beaconsfield insisted that Shere Ali—the Ameer of Afghanistan—should receive an ambassador from us also. Sir Louis Cavagnari was sent, but, a month after his arrival, the British Residency was attacked, and he and the whole of his suite, rushing out, were slaughtered in the streets of Cabul by the people of the city, who were 'seething with anger against the infidel foreigner'. Sir Frederick Roberts marched upon Cabul and occupied it, Ayoub Khan, a son of Shere Ali, raised an army at Herat, and marched against Candahar, which was held by British troops. General Burrows was sent out to meet him, with a small army of two thousand men, of whom only five hundred were

English soldiers The enemy had six times the number of men and three times the number of guns They met at **Maiwand**, and the result was a terrible defeat and a fearful slaughter of the British troops **Ayoob Khan** pressed on to **Candahar**, and laid siege to it, but **General Roberts**, after a march which is one of the most brilliant and famous in military history—a march of 320 miles—fell at once upon **Ayoob Khan**, routed his army with terrific slaughter, and captured the whole of his guns **Abdurrahman** was made **Ameer** of the country, and he consented to receive a British Resident in **Cabul**, and to accept from our Government a yearly pension of £120,000

(i) The three towns, **Cabul**, **Herat**, and **Candahar**, are at once the largest towns in the country, and also the most important strategic points They stand at the three angles of a triangle



(ii) **Sir Frederick Roberts's** army consisted of British, Sikh, and **Ghoorka** troops The last are renowned for their wiry and sinewy build, and their immense activity

7 Ireland.—The affairs of Ireland have always taken up a large proportion of the time of Parliament during the reign of **Queen Victoria**, and more especially towards the latter part of the reign In 1881 Parliament passed a second **Irish Land Act**, the purpose of which was to establish **Land Courts** to settle all differences arising between landlord and tenant In 1885 a bill was passed for lowering the qualification for county voters and putting them on the same footing as voters in towns This measure added over two millions of voters to the constituencies of the kingdom, and it gave a great deal more power to the **Home Rule Party** in Ireland. This party was led by **Charles Stewart Parnell**—an Irish Protestant of American descent This party formed in Ireland a number of leagues—such as the **Land League**, the **National League**, and others Its members have over and over again suffered imprisonment for the cause they have at heart, but no kind of treatment or punishment seems able to turn them from their purpose In 1886 **Mr Gladstone**, who was converted

to the Irish opinions regarding the proper way of ruling Ireland, brought in a Bill for giving a Home Parliament to the Irish on College Green in Dublin, and, upon that Bill, he dissolved Parliament, and appealed to the country in a General Election. He sustained a severe defeat. The Liberal Party split up into two—the Gladstonian Liberals and the Liberal Unionists. The Tory Party, led by Lord Salisbury and Mr W. H. Smith, found itself, at the meeting of the House of Commons, by the assistance of the Liberal Unionists, in a majority of 118, and Mr Gladstone resigned office. From that time the question of Home Rule has absorbed most of the political attention of the British public, and has indeed driven all other questions into the background.

(i) The House of Commons now numbers 670 members. Scotland received in the Bill of 1865 twelve additional seats, and her members now number 72.

(ii) Three-cornered constituencies were also abolished, and the country was divided into "parliamentary divisions"—each containing about 50,000 persons.

(iii) London has now more than 60 members.

8 The Work of Parliament (i)—The Seventh Parliament of this reign met in 1859, under the administration of Lord Derby, but, as the Liberals found themselves in a majority, Lord Derby was quickly replaced by Lord Palmerston, who appointed Mr Gladstone his Chancellor of the Exchequer. Mr Gladstone, in 1860, made a treaty of commerce—negotiated by Mr Cobden—between France and Britain, which permitted the introduction of cheap wines at a low duty. In this year of 1860, also, the Commons finally asserted and vindicated their sole right of control over all moneys and money bills. The chief legislative achievement of this Parliament was the Bankruptcy Act of 1861, by which imprisonment for debt was abolished, and only fraudulent debt was regarded as a crime.—The Eighth Parliament met in 1866, with Earl Russell (formerly Lord John) as Prime Minister in the House of Lords, and Mr Gladstone (who was Chancellor of the Exchequer) as Leader of the House of Commons. The Liberal Party had a large majority, and Mr Gladstone introduced a new Reform Bill, but, owing to the secession of a number of prominent Liberals, the Government was overthrown, and Lord Derby came into power, with Mr Disraeli (who was Chancellor of the Exchequer) as Leader of the House. This Conservative Government brought in a new Reform Bill of its own, which passed both Houses,

and became law in 1867. In the beginning of 1868, Lord Derby sent in his resignation to the Queen, and Mr Disraeli became Prime Minister. Mr Gladstone introduced to this Parliament his famous Irish Church Resolutions, and carried these against the Government by a large majority. Mr Disraeli thereupon resigned in April, but agreed to carry on the business of the realm till autumn, when he would dissolve Parliament, go to the country, and ask the opinion of the constituencies on the Irish Church Question. One of the most important Acts passed by this Parliament was an Act for the taking over by Government of all Electric Telegraph Lines from private companies. From 1868, therefore, Telegraphy became a department of the Post-Office. This Eighth Parliament of Queen Victoria was the last Parliament elected under the Reform Bill of 1832.

(i) In 1860 the Government brought in a Bill for the abolition of the duty on Paper. This Bill was thrown out by the Lords. But it was, though not in form, in reality a Money Bill, and the Commons contended that, by the British Constitution, the Lords had no power of any kind over the collection or the expenditure of the moneys of the nation. Lord Palmerston afterwards brought in Resolutions which secured to the Commons the exclusive power over all moneys and money questions.

(ii) The following are the chief points of difference between the Reform Bills of Mr Gladstone and Mr Disraeli.

LIBERAL REFORM BILL.	CONSERVATIVE REFORM BILL.
(a) Borough Franchise, £7 rental	(a) Borough Franchise, £10 rental
(b) County Franchise, £14 "	(b) County Franchise, £12 "
(c) Lodger's Franchise, £10 "	(c) Lodger's Franchise, £10 "

The Conservatives also invented "three cornered constituencies"—that is, boroughs which return three members, but in which each voter has only two votes. These were done away with in 1885.

(iii) The secession of Liberals was called by Mr John Bright the "Cave of Adullam", and the chief Adullamites were Mr Robert Lowe, Lord Elcho, Mr Horsman, and Earl Grosvenor.

And every one that was in distress and every one that was in debt and every one that was discontented gathered themselves unto him"—I SAM. xxii. 2.

(iv) The chief purpose of the Irish Church Resolutions was to disestablish and disendow the Church in Ireland—mainly on the ground that five out of every six Irishmen were Roman Catholics, and that it was unjust to take the land of the Irish for an alien church, and thus, as it were, compel them to pay for their own conversion.

9 The Work of Parliament (ii)—The Ninth Parliament of the Queen met in the end of the year 1868. It was elected under the new and extended franchise, and it contained of Liberals a

majority of 132. It had a great deal of work to do, and it did much. In 1869 it passed the **Irish Church Act**, which had the effect of freeing the Episcopal Church in Ireland from all connection with the State. In 1870 it passed the **Irish Land Act**, and in the same year it carried into law the **Elementary Education Act**. It likewise passed a Bill to abolish **Purchase in the Army**, and it gave to the three kingdoms security in voting according to a man's own private opinions in the **Ballot Act**.

10 Great Men.—The two most distinguished politicians and statesmen in the latter half of the reign of Queen Victoria are beyond doubt Mr Benjamin Disraeli (afterwards Earl of Beaconsfield) and Mr William Ewart Gladstone. The former took the leadership of the Conservative Party when it had dwindled both in numbers and in influence, gave it heart and guidance, and led it back to power and office. Mr Gladstone began his political life as a High Tory, was next a Peelite, then a Liberal, and is now the leader of the party called the Gladstonian Liberals. The Marquis of Hartington (properly the Hon. Spencer Cavendish) is the most distinguished man among the Liberal Unionists, and second to him—if second—comes Mr Joseph Chamberlain. The most distinguished Conservative statesman now living is the Marquis of Salisbury. Mr William Edward Forster distinguished himself by his Education Act, and also as Chief Secretary for Ireland. Mr Charles Stewart Parnell is the leader of the Irish Party, and Lord Randolph Churchill is the leader of the left or democratic wing of the compact Conservative Party.

(i) Lord Hartington is the eldest son of the Duke of Devonshire, and goes to the House of Lords as Duke of Devonshire himself on the death of his father.

(ii) In the same way, the proper and legal name of Lord Randolph Churchill is the Hon. Randolph Churchill. He is a younger son of the late Duke of Marlborough. (Compare the Hon. John Russell—commonly called Lord John Russell.)

11. The Queen's Jubilee.—The year 1887 is memorable as the **Fiftieth Year**—or **Jubilee Year**—of the reign of Queen Victoria. Few English monarchs have reigned so long, no English monarch has ever seen so many and so remarkable changes. The people of England—and more especially of London—resolved to celebrate the 21st of June with all the emphasis in their power. The Queen went in state from Buckingham Palace to Westminster Abbey. Many

persons passed the night in the streets to see the procession, the houses and streets were decked with flags, banners, streamers, evergreens, festoons, and triumphal arches of every description, a special service was held in Westminster Abbey, which was crowded from floor to ceiling, and the Queen also held, on successive days, reviews of her troops and of her navy

(i) At Portsmouth the Queen, on board the yacht *Victoria and Albert*, passed through a fleet of 135 ships of various descriptions, moored in three columns. Each ship fired twenty-one guns as the Queen passed. At night the whole fleet was illuminated by electricity.

(ii) Her Majesty wrote a letter to the Home Secretary, in which the following sentence occurred: "I am anxious to express to my people my warm thanks for the kind, and more than kind, reception I met with on going to and returning from Westminster Abbey with all my children and grandchildren. It has shown me that the labour and anxiety of fifty long years, twenty-two of which I spent in unclouded happiness, have been appreciated by my people."

12 The British Empire—Great Britain, by the aid of her stores of iron and coal, still more by the courage, thoughtfulness, and diligence of her people, has placed ships on every lake, river, sea, and ocean, and has helped almost every nation on the face of the globe to pierce its country with roads and with railways. Great Britain—an agricultural country till 1760—is now one vast workshop, and her ports send to and receive from every nation in the world immense quantities of exports and imports. And Great Britain is not only the hardest working country in the world: her people are the most daring and persevering explorers. The countries we explore we also hold, and hence the British Empire has grown to be the largest and most populous empire on the face of the globe.—A great past, a great present, a most hopeful future—these are the heritage of every man and woman born into the United Kingdom. And, among all our triumphs, the triumphs of the mind over error are the greatest, because all can share in them: all can share in the triumphs of our language and our literature, all can be inspired, stimulated, and uplifted by them. No country can show greater thinkers, greater writers, greater poets.

We must be free or die who speak the tongue
That Shakespeare spake, the faith and morals hold
That Milton held in everything we are sprung
From Earth's first blood, have titles manifold.

SHORT CHRONOLOGY AND SUMMARY OF QUEEN VICTORIA'S REIGN

- 1837 Accession of Alexandra Victoria.
Rev. in Lower Canada.
- 1838 "The Poor Law Amendment Act."
- 1839 Edward and Ellen's Marriage.
- 1840 The Queen marries Prince Albert.
- 1842 The Great Exhibition.
- 1843 The Free Church of Scotland Act.
- 1844 Trial of Daniel O'Connell.
- 1845 (a) The Queen's Coronation in London.
(b) Failure of the Irish Potato Crop.
- 1846 REPEAL OF THE CORN LAWS.
(a) Failure of the Irish Potato Crop.
(b) Grant of £100,000 to the Relief of Irish Poor.
- 1849 The Corn Laws Act (1849).
- 1850 (a) Death of Sir Robert Peel.
(b) Papal Allocution.
- 1851 The Great Exhibition.
- 1852 Death of the Duke of Wellington.
- 1854 The Crimean War.
(i) Battle of the Alma.
(ii) Battle of Balaclava.
(iii) Battle of Inkermann.
- 1855 Capture of Sebastopol.
Newspaper of the day reported.
- 1856 Treaty of Peace.
- 1857 THE INDIA ACT 1857.
(i) Mutiny at Meerut.
(ii) Capture of Delhi.
(iii) Fleeing to Lucknow.
- 1858 The Conspiracy to "murder" the
Capture of Lucknow.
Government of India transferred
to the Crown.
- 1859 The Volunteer Bill (1859).
- 1861 Death of the Prince Consort.
- 1862 Lancashire Relief Committee.
Escape of the Alabama.
- 1863 Marriage of the Prince of Wales.
- 1865 Death of Lord Palmerston.
- 1867 New Reform Bill.
Release of Fenian prisoners at Manchester.
- 1868 War in Abyssinia.
- 1869 Disestablishment of the Irish Church.
- 1870 The Irish Land Act.
The Elementary Education Act.
Civil Service appointments now open to competition.
- 1871 The Treaty of Washington.
The purchase of Commodore's in the
Army abolished by Royal Warrant.
- 1872 The Ballot Act.
- 1873 Death of Napoleon III at Chislehurst.
- 1874 Sudden dissolution of Parliament
by Mr Gladstone.
Mr Parnell's motion on Home Rule re-
jected.
- 1875 The Government purchases £4,000,000
worth of shares in the Suez Canal.
- 1876 Mr Russell goes to the House of
Peers as Earl Beaconsfield.
- 1878 The Congress of Berlin.
- 1879 Irish Land League.
- 1880 Agriculture in Ireland.
- 1881 Irish Land Bill.
Death of Lord Beaconsfield.
(i) Arrest of Mr Parnell and his
colleagues.
(ii) The Land League proclaimed as a
Criminal Association.
- 1882 Release of Mr Parnell and his
friends.
Murder of Lord Frederick Cavendish.
- 1883 New Irish Coercion Act.
The Ashbourne and his Army totally
destroyed in the Sudan.
- 1884 Murder of Gordon at Khartoum.
- 1885 Defence of Mr Gladstone on Home
Rule.
- 1887 JUBILEE OF QUEEN VICTORIA.
Irish Coercion Act.
- 1889 Death of Robert Browning.
- 1890 Firm Action of Lord Salisbury
towards Portugal.

IMPORTANT CONTEMPORARY EVENTS

- 1839 Candahar taken.
New Zealand colonised.
1841. Hong kong ceded to England
Insurrection at Cabul.
- 1842 Massacre in the Khyber Pass
- 1843 Sind annexed.
- 1845 The First Sikh War
- 1848 Flight of Louis Philippe of France
(I) Insurrections in Prussia, Austria, Italy etc.
(II) Revolutions in Spain Poland Hungary etc
Louis Napoleon President of the French Republic.
- 1849 The Second Sikh War
Annexation of the Punjab
- 1851 Coup-d'État in Paris by Louis Napoleon
- 1852 Louis Napoleon Prince President for life (Jan) Louis Napoleon declares himself Emperor with the title of Napoleon III. (Dec.)
1854. Turkey declares war against Russia.
- 1855 England, France, Sardinia, and Turkey attack Russia
Death of the Emperor Nicholas
- 1856 Annexation of Oude.
- 1858 Queen Victoria proclaimed Sovereign of India
- 1859 France and Sardinia declare war against Austria
(I) Battle of Magenta.
(II) Battle of Solferino
- 1860 Close of the Chinese War by the capture of Peking.
Treaty with China
Victor Emmanuel King of Italy
- 1861 William I., King of Prussia
Bismarck his Chancellor and chief counsellor
The Confederate States of North America (10 in number) founded
American Civil War
- 1865 Surrender of General Lee to General Grant.
Close of the American Civil War
- 1866 Austro Prussian War
(I) Battle of Sadowa
(II) Annexation of Hanover by Prussia.
- 1867 The Dominion of Canada established.
- 1868 War with Abyssinia.
- 1869 Opening of the Suez Canal.
- 1870 The Franco Prussian War
(I) Battle of Worth
(II) Siege of Metz.
(III) Surrender of the Emperor Napoleon at Sedan.
(IV) The French overturn the Empire and proclaim a Republic
(V) German troops surround and besiege Paris
1871. William I of Prussia, Commander-in chief of the German Army, takes the title of Deutscher Kaiser
(I) Paris taken by the Germans (Jan)
(II) Peace signed between France and Germany (Feb)
(III) Insurrection of the Parisian Communists
(IV) Second Siege of Paris (by the French Army)
- 1874 Wolseley's Expedition to Coomassie (Ashanti)
- 1876 The Bulgarian atrocities
- 1877 Queen Victoria proclaimed EMPRESS OF INDIA at Delhi
(I) Russo-Turkish War
(II) Defence of Plevna.
(III) Advance of the Russians on Constantinople
- 1878 Treaty of Berlin
- 1879 Zulu War
(I) Slaughter of the British at Isandlwana.
(II) Defeat of the Zulus at Ulundi
Murder of English Envoy at Cabul.
1881. War in South Africa
Emperor Alexander assassinated.
President Garfield assassinated.
- 1890 (I) Lord Salisbury stops the Portuguese in Africa
(II) The Prince of Wales completes and opens the Forth Bridge

GREAT BRITAIN IN THE NINETEENTH CENTURY

1. Political.—The power of the Crown has been growing weaker since the beginning of this century. The power of the House of Commons has been growing greater and greater. The House of Lords has lost all its control over the collection and the expenditure of money, and it is seldom able to impede for any long time the will of the Lower House. The three Reform Bills of 1832, 1867, and 1885 have gradually widened the basis of representation, and have given to the whole people what was once in the sole possession of a single and wealthy class. The first Reform Bill took the voting power out of the hands of the town-councils and wealthy magnates, the second took it from the upper middle-class and gave it to the middle and lower middle classes, the third gave this power to the whole nation. These were three great, but perfectly peaceful, revolutions. Government by party, the core of which is the Cabinet, is now the firmly established method of government in Great Britain, because it secures the representation of all classes, all interests, and all opinions, and because it brings every question before the whole nation, and subjects it to the test of public discussion, in the press, on platforms, and in Parliament.

(i) The Reform Bill of 1885 extended the number of votes from two millions to five millions.

(ii) "Popular power, organised by intellect, influenced by morality, and devoted to high and noble aims, is the ideal form of the society which is now developing itself."
—GARIBOLDI.

2 Social.—The Nineteenth Century is remarkable for many things, but it is most remarkable for the immense and rapid advances made by science, and for the astonishing improvements that have been made in the methods of travelling, and in the transmission of all kinds of news—in one word, in the methods of communication. Science has added very greatly to the health, the comfort, and the length of human life, and an honest artisan enjoys sanitary advantages to-day which were not within the power of kings and princes a hundred years ago. Most of these great changes have taken place during the reign of Queen Victoria. The cost of living has decreased, the comforts of the working-classes have steadily increased, since the beginning of the present century. In its early years, the landowner and the farmer became rapidly rich, because wheat was sold as high as 180s a quarter, and the four-pound loaf was at times as much as 1s 10d. There was no free trade, and, when foreign grain was admitted into our ports, it had to pay an enormous duty. Foreign cattle were not admitted at all. Wages were very low. Taxation

was very heavy, and, the year before the Battle of Waterloo, it had risen to £6 a head. In the present day it is only about £2 a head. There was a window-tax—that is to say, a tax on the sun's light and heat, two of the most necessary conditions of bodily health. Newspapers were, in 1815, taxed fourpence a copy. Salt paid a tax forty times as great as its original cost. A working-man had in many cases to pay nearly half of the whole of his annual income to the Government, in taxes direct or indirect—Towns were dark, dirty, ill-paved, ill-drained, and ill-guarded. Small-pox was the prevalent disease in towns, and fevers from undrained fields in the country. In the year 1800, the death rate of London was one in twenty-four, at the present time, the death-rate is only about one in fifty.

(i) Carpenters and masons received, in Scotland, from 17s to 18s a week, in England, from 22s to 25s. Agricultural labourers earned from 6s to 15s.

While farmers were selling their corn at 112s or even at 170s the quarter—while it paid to take bits of open down land, get three crops off it, the next piece—the wretched labourers were told could be given them for their wages. Out-door relief pass on to but little —FRANCE.

(ii) In the middle of last century, the newspaper tax was only one penny a copy, but, as newspapers grew in power and in influence over the electors, the tax rose to fourpence—which was of course a quite prohibitive price for the lower classes. In 1835 it was again reduced to a penny. The tax was not finally removed till 1861.

(iii) There was also a tax of 3s 6d on every advertisement in a newspaper.

The schoolboy whips his taxed top, the beardless youth manages his taxed horse with a taxed bridle on a taxed road, and the dying Englishman pouring his medicine which has paid seven per cent. into a spoon which has paid fifteen per cent. flings himself back on his chintz bed which has paid twenty two per cent. and expires in the arms of an apothecary who has paid a licence of one hundred pounds for the privilege of putting him to death. —BRYAN SMITH.

3 Communications—At the beginning of the present century, the transmission of passengers, goods, letters, or news, was extremely difficult, slow, and expensive. Roads were bad—it was not till 1815 that Macadam introduced his system, canals were slow, railways were non-existent. Poor people had to travel long distances on foot. Sailing-vessels might take six weeks to go from Leith to London, a voyage from Liverpool to New York might occupy from thirty to ninety days. At the present time, the swift steamers of our new lines cross the Atlantic in six days. The journey from London to Edinburgh required three days and three nights on the swiftest mail-coaches, it is now done on the Great Northern in eight hours and a half. There were no telegraphs, and the news of the decisive and epoch-making Battle of Waterloo took three days to reach London. The postage of a letter from London to Scotland was over a shilling, it was not till 1840 that the uniform rate of one penny for the whole kingdom was introduced. Very few people had either the time or the money to travel, the railways of the United Kingdom now carry about 800,000,000 passengers a year, not counting those persons who hold season-tickets. In the early part of this century, about one person in every four wrote one letter per annum, the average number of letters written per head in England is now forty-five, and in the United Kingdom it is about forty. The number of telegrams sent every year is about 60 millions, and there are nearly seven thousand telegraph offices scattered over the United Kingdom.

(i) The following are the chief dates of steam navigation —

- (a) 1812, Henry Bell runs the *Comet* between Glasgow and Greenock.
- (b) 1815, The *Margery*—the first Thames steamer—runs between London and Gravesend.
- (c) 1819, The *Saturnah* crosses from America to Liverpool.
- (d) 1825, The *Enterprise* sails from Falmouth to Calcutta.
- (e) 1838, The *Strius* crosses from London to New York in 17 days.

(ii) A school girl goes by sailing vessel from Edinburgh to London in the early part of the century. At the end of about six weeks the ship puts into Hull under stress of weather, and the young lady writes to her parents that they are making excellent way.

(iii) "The ancient pael horses carried their hundreds, and the stage coaches their thousands, but the railways carry their millions—and more millions than ever stage coaches carried thousands." "The number of passengers carried on the railways of the United Kingdom in the year 1876 was equal to four times the population of Europe, and to more than half the estimated population of the globe."—*ENCIC BRIT*

4. Manners and Customs—The most striking change in the character of Englishmen during the present century is to be seen in the growth of the feeling of Humanity. In the beginning of the century, prisoners under trial for felony were not allowed to have counsel, and had to defend themselves as best they could. Petty thefts were visited with capital punishment. Thieves and thief-takers (detectives) could be seen hobnobbing together in public-houses, the thieves were allowed to pilfer until they committed a "forty-pound crime," when the detective seized them, obtained his reward—and they, the gallows. The inmates of lunatic asylums were frequently flogged. Parties of ladies and gentlemen were made up to go and see an execution. Sometimes men were hanged in chains. The press gang carried off industrious and respectable citizens from the streets, and forced them to serve in the navy till the war should be over. The most popular amusement was the Prize Ring. Drunkenness was the prevalent vice in all classes, and even the most respectable men considered it a duty to be intoxicated after dinner. Little children worked in factories and in mines more than twelve hours a day. Little boys had to climb chimneys to sweep them. A lawsuit would sometimes last half-a-century, and ruin every one connected with it. In the present time, capital punishment does not exist except for deliberate murder, justice can be had—sometimes at moderate cost, the pillory, with its inhuman practices, is gone, flogging in the army is gone, a strong feeling of sympathy with the poor and suffering reigns in all classes, people are eager to find ways and means of doing good, the working-classes have more leisure, more education, more amusements, better houses, better clothing, better food.

(i) In 1810, stealing from a shop goods to the value of 5s, from a dwelling house or a vessel in a river to the value of 40s, was punished with death.

(ii) "In the beginning of the century the law recognised 223 capital offences. A man might be hanged for almost anything, if he appeared in disguise on a public road. If he cut down young trees, if he shot rabbits, if he poached at night, if he stole anything worth five shillings from a person or a shop, if he came back from transportation before his time, a Gipsy, if he remained in the same place a year. In fact, the chief desire of the Government was to get rid of the criminal classes by hanging them."—*BESANT, Fifty Years Ago*

(iii) Even George III was flogged when he was insane

(iv) "The number of visitors to fourteen great gin shops in London was found to average 3000 each per diem, in Edinburgh there was a whisky shop for every fifteen families in one Irish town of 800 people there were eighty-eight gin shops, in Glasgow there was one public house to every ten dwelling houses" —BESANT

(v) "They took the child—boy or girl—at six years of age, they carried the little thing away from the light of heaven, and lowered it deep down into the black and gloomy pit, they placed it behind a door, and ordered it to pull this open to let the trucks come and go, and to keep it shut when they were not passing. The child was set at the door in the dark—at first they gave it a candle, which would burn an hour or two and then go out. They kept the little creature there for twelve interminable hours" —BESANT

A child of six years of age with a girdle round his or her waist to which was attached a chain passing under the legs and fastened to a cart, had to drag a load on all fours through avenues not so good as a common sewer. Children and women had to carry loads of coals on their backs up steep ascents equal in distance to the height of St. Paul's fourteen times a day —KNIGHT

(vi) The little climbing chimney sweep tore his hands, elbows, and knees against the sharp bricks, sometimes he stuck in the chimney, sometimes his master lighted a fire beneath him to quicken his movements, sometimes he was choked to death. This went on till 1841

(vii) "The working classes have grown distinctly better off. They are better housed, they are better fed, they are more cheaply fed, they are better dressed, they have a thousand luxuries to which they were formerly strangers, their children are educated, in most great towns they have free libraries, they have their own clubs" —BESANT

(viii) "Formerly, the lives of the working classes were spent wholly in the place where they were born, they knew no other. Now the railways carry them cheaply everywhere. In one small town of Lancashire the factory hands alone spend £30,000 a year in excursions" —BESANT

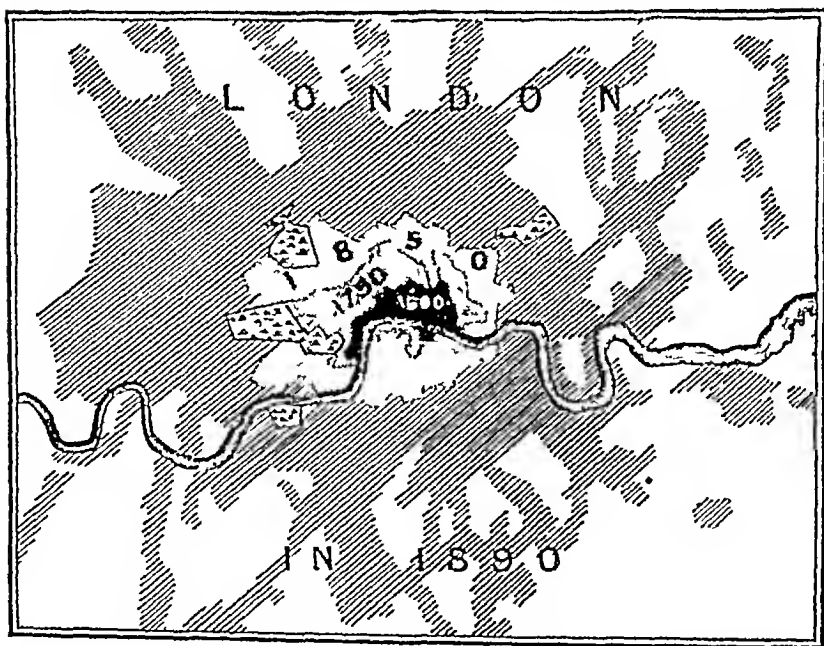
5 Dress—In the beginning of the century, dress, under the patronage and through the example of the Prince Regent (afterwards George IV), was of a very exaggerated and striking character. The head and neck were so muffled up that the faces, either of men or of women, could not be seen. Hence the dandies of the period were often called "Invisibles." Powdered hair, pigtails, and hessian boots were common in the streets. The waist was up right beneath the shoulders, and the coat-tails were very long and extremely narrow. Since the accession of Queen Victoria, the tendency has been more and more towards plainness, simplicity, and truth to the human figure.

The perpetual changes—the ebb and flow of taste—in the fashions are seen most strikingly in the head dress of women. In the beginning of Queen Victoria's reign, bonnets were as large as coal scuttles, they gradually dwindled till they were no larger than half a crown, in 1890 they are of all sizes, shapes, and colours.

6 London—London in the year 1801 had a population of less than a million, to-day it has more than five millions. At the beginning of her Majesty's reign, in 1837, the population of London was about two millions. The streets were dark—Pall Mall itself was only lighted in 1807, and gas was not in general use till 1816—except for a few oil-lamps here and there which, with a feeble and struggling light, contrived to make darkness visible. Turnpikes hemmed in London on all sides, and even blocked the main roads within its limits. There were only three bridges on the Thames—London Bridge, Westminster Bridge, and Southwark Bridge, the last not really open and available for traffic, as there was a toll upon it.

There were no penny steamers on the river, no underground railways, and very few omnibuses. London is now better supplied with means of locomotion than any other town in the world. It is the wealthiest, as well as the largest and most populous, city on the globe. At the beginning of the century, it may be described as the capital of England, when railways became general, it became the capital of Great Britain, when rapid steam-vessels connected its port with all our colonies, it became the capital of the British Empire, and, now that it has a large and growing trade with every port of any size upon the face of the globe, it may fairly be called the Capital of the Commercial World. "London," says a great writer, "sits enthroned at the gates of the sea, the mighty centre—commercial, financial, political, social, and intellectual—of a vast realm, where English laws, English institutions, the English tongue, and all the treasures of English literature reign and govern and enrich the lives and the minds of millions of men, generation after generation, all over the globe, with a sovereignty that seems imperishable and destined never to pass away."

(i) London contains many markets—of corn, cattle, and foreign produce, several large manufacturing towns, a great port, a great banking city (it is, in fact, the money market of the world), two ecclesiastical capitals (London and Westminster), and many other cities and towns.



(ii) All the railways of England converge upon it, and also all the water ways of the globe.

(iii) The Port of London is the largest mart for Colonial Produce in the world.

(iv) A town as large as Brighton is added to it every year. The growth of London is the most wonderful thing in the history of civilisation. In 1801 the population was about 800,000. It is now over 5,000,000.

7 Our Colonies and Dependencies—Few things show more strikingly the amazing contrast between the England of 1800 and the England of 1890 than the rapid growth and enormous expansion of the British Empire. Since the beginning of the century we have far more than doubled our Empire, and we now hold more than one-seventh of the surface of the globe, and about one fourth of the total population. The area of the British Empire is more than a hundred times the extent of Great Britain itself. And most of these vast possessions have come into our hands since 1837—the year of the accession of Queen Victoria. A steady stream of emigration from the Three Kingdoms flows into these colonies, and thus relieves the congestion of the labour market. But, in the beginning of the century, for want of steam-ships and other cheap and easy means of locomotion, this stream was only a tiny rill of about two thousand persons a year. In the middle of the century (in 1852) it reached the number of about 370,000—or an average of nearly 7100 every week, in 1882 it reached its maximum of over 113,000. The annual number of emigrants is still very large (close upon 100,000), but most of them, by correspondence or by visits, keep up the close ties which bound them to their old home.

(i) The grand total of square miles in the British Colonies and Dependencies is nearly 10 millions, and the total population is roughly estimated at 200 millions. By far the most populous Dependency is India, which contains more than 200 millions of people, directly under British rule and, with the Feudatory States, more than 200 millions.

(ii) The total area of the British Colonies and Dependencies—excluding India—is nearly 7½ million square miles, with an estimated population of nearly 10 millions.

(iii) The nine self-governing colonies contain nearly 6,000,000 square miles, and about 10 million souls.

8 Inventions—The Nineteenth Century will be known in history as The Century of Invention. Not a week has gone by, during the last fifty years, that has not seen numerous thoughtful and persevering men taking out patents for the inventions they have made. Most of these have been for the comfort and health of human life, but many also for its destruction. The different modes of using gas, the various applications of photography, the enormous and rapid developments of electricity, the numerous devices for saving human labour—such as the steam-printing press, the steam-plough, the sewing-machine,—all these and many more have been, and daily are, the subjects of almost innumerable patents.

9 Manufactures—The manufactures of Great Britain have grown during the present century with a rapidity unparalleled in the history of the world. In 1801 we imported about 21 million pounds of cotton, in 1887 the annual import of that vegetable fibre had grown to nearly 1800 million pounds.—The woollen trade has also grown with the cheapness and speed of ocean-carriage, as well as with the improvements in machinery. We at present import about 600 million pounds of wool, about two-fifths of which is retained for home consumption. Iron ore is extracted to the annual value of over £11,000,000, coal to the annual value of about £40,000,000,

and upon the solid foundation of these two products the greatness of our manufactures rests

(i) "The English cotton mills contain as many spindles and power-looms as those of all the rest of the world combined."

(ii) In the beginning of the century, the annual out-put of iron ore in Great Britain was about 150,000 tons, it is now about 15 millions—or one hundred times as much

(iii) The coal raised annually in Great Britain amounts to about 170 million tons Of this Scotland contributes about 25 million

10 Commerce—As Great Britain holds the first place for manufactures among all the nations of the world, so does she hold the first place for commerce She has deep and spacious harbours, she has many navigable rivers, she has the advantage of higher tides than most other countries, and all these natural advantages she has been steadily improving, since the opening of the century, by every kind of mechanical and scientific appliance The flag of Great Britain is now seen on every sea and ocean, in every considerable port on the face of the globe, and the British are the ocean-carriers of the world The annual value of the imports we buy and the exports we sell amounts to about £700,000,000 Among our colonies and dependencies, with India alone we do an annual trade amounting to over £60,000,000, and with Australasia to about £45,000,000 But, with the United States, our annual trade has risen to the enormous sum of about £120,000,000, and with France it has risen to over £55,000,000 These are developments of commerce beyond even the wildest dreams of the most imaginative merchant of the year 1801

(i) "Back to England, says the great geographer, Ritter, "as to a common fountain head flows the might, the fulness, and the wealth of her thousandfold relations with the world

(ii) The chief harbours of Great Britain go in pairs these pairs are opposite each other, the land at these points contracts to the narrowness of an isthmus, and there is the best railway communication with every port. These pairs are Glasgow and Leith, Newcastle and Carlisle Hull and Liverpool, London and Bristol

(iii) "The shipping of the United Kingdom increased sixfold in the period from 1840 to 1876"—*ENGL. BRIT*

(iv) The total tonnage of the United Kingdom amounts to nearly 8 million tons This is twice as much as is possessed by Norway or by Germany, and about five times as much as belongs to Holland

(v) Since 1872 there has been a steady increase of imports, and as steady a decrease of exports, in our trade

11 Education.—In the time of George III education was confined almost entirely to the wealthy and professional classes Even in 1837 there were only fifty-eight persons in every hundred who could read and write, and, in the beginning of the century, these were much fewer The educational condition of England was not much superior to that of Italy or of Austria It is true that George III said, "It is my royal will and pleasure that every child in my realm should have a

Bible, and should be able to read it," but he took no means to have his royal will carried out. In Scotland things were very much better, and, thanks to the parish schools, the children, even of the poorest, had a fair education. In 1870 Mr W E Forster, the Vice-President of the Council, passed an Act for Elementary Education. Since the passing of that Act there has been an increase of attendance in Primary Schools in Great Britain to the extent of about two and a half millions, and there are now in attendance on these Schools about four millions of children in England, and about half a million in Scotland. What may be called book-education is improving rapidly in all parts of Great Britain, and more and more ability of a very high kind is taking its place in the ranks of the teaching profession.

(i) The following advertisement appeared in a newspaper of 1800—"Young ladies are boarded and taught the English and French languages, with grammatical purity and correctness, history and needleworks, for twenty five guineas per annum."

(ii) "In 1837 the majority of country people could not read or write the good old discipline of Father Stick and his children, Cat o' Nine Tails, Rope s-end, Strap Birch, Ferule, and Cane, was wholesomely maintained"—BESANT

(iii) In 1818 there were only 644,000 children at School. This was at the rate of one scholar for every seventeen persons.

(iv) In 1839 the first grant in aid of Elementary Education was made. It amounted to £30,000. It is now over £3,000,000.

(v) Illiteracy, as indicated by the number of persons who sign the marriage register with a cross, has now fallen, in the case of men, to about eight per cent for the whole of England and Wales.

12 Literature—This century has seen within its own limits two great periods of literature—each remarkable for poetry, imaginative fiction, and noble prose essays—the one in the first half, the other in the second half, of its existence. In the first half of the century there lived and wrote Samuel Taylor Coleridge, William Wordsworth, George Gordon, Lord Byron, and Walter Scott. These four were poets of the first rank. Percy Bysshe Shelley and John Keats come extremely near them. As prose-writers, chiefly in the form of essay and dialogue, the two names of Charles Lamb and Walter Savage Landor stand highest. In the imaginative fiction of the earlier part of the century, Sir Walter Scott stands above his contemporaries easily supreme. The three greatest writers of fiction of the latter half are William Makepeace Thackeray, Charles Dickens, and George Eliot. The two greatest historians are Thomas Babington Macaulay and Thomas Carlyle. In the latter half of the century the two greatest poets are Alfred Tennyson and Robert Browning. The two noblest prose-writers are Matthew Arnold and John Ruskin, the former of whom was also a true poet. Style and vigorous expression in the majority both of poets and of prose-writers have risen to a greater height in this latter half of the nineteenth century than they ever did before in the history of England.

(i) S T Coleridge (1772-1834) wrote both verse and prose. His two finest poems are "The Ancient Mariner" and "Christabel." His best prose work is the "Aids to Reflection."

(ii) William Wordsworth (1770-1850) is the poet who inspired and guided most

of the best minds of the early half of the century. His best poems are his "Ode on Intimations of Immortality," his shorter poems, and his sonnets.

Another well known writer was **Percy Bysshe Shelley** who wrote an enormous amount both in prose and in verse. Wordsworth, Coleridge and Southey are often classed as "The Lake Poets." But this is only a vulgar error which survives from the early days of the *Edinburgh Review*. Their styles were different, their ways of looking on human life were different, and their subjects were different.

(iii) **Lord Byron** (1788-1824) was the most brilliant poet of the century. He also wrote very vigorous prose. His best known poem is "Childe Harold's Pilgrimage."

(iv) **Walter Scott** (1771-1832) was both a poet and a novelist. His most popular poems "The Lay of the Last Minstrel," and "The Lady of the Lake," appeared before 1810, the poems of Lord Byron began to eclipse the poetic efforts of Scott who turned in 1814 to fiction. His most famous novels are "Old Mortality," "Ivanhoe," etc.

(v) **P. B. Shelley** (1792-1822) was perhaps the finest lyrical poet of the century. His best long poem is the "Adonais"—an elegy on the death of John Keats. His finest lyric is the "Ode to a Skylark."

(vi) **John Keats** (1795-1821) died too early for his work, but not for his fame. His greatest poem is "Hyperion"—a poem on the subjugation of the "Early Gods" by those of the second régime. His odes are among the noblest and finest in the language.

(vii) **Charles Lamb** (1775-1834) is the most subtle and delicate prose essayist in our language. His best prose work is to be found in the "Essays of Elia."

(viii) **W. S. Lander** (1775-1864) was a writer of vigorous, clear, and classical prose. His greatest work is his "Imaginary Conversations."

(ix) **W. M. Thackeray** (1811-63) is the most original of English novelists. His two greatest works are "Vanity Fair" and "The Newcomes."

(x) **Charles Dickens** (1812-70) was the most popular writer of the century. His best work is "David Copperfield"—a kind of autobiography. His best work was written in the first half of the century.

(xi) **George Eliot** (= **Marian Evans**—1819-80) wrote both prose and verse. Her greatest novels are "Adam Bede" and "Middlemarch."

(xii) **T. B. Macaulay** (afterwards **Lord Macaulay**, 1800-59) was a historian, poet, and orator. His greatest work is his "History of England," and his Essays, and his best-known poems are his "Lays of Ancient Rome." His Speeches are full of noble and vigorous eloquence.

(xiii) **T. Carlyle** (1795-1881) was a great essayist as well as historian. His best known work is his "Heroes and Hero Worship," his most striking and brilliant book is the "French Revolution."

(xiv) **A. Tennyson** (**Lord Tennyson**—1809-1892) is the noblest, as well as the most popular, poet of this century. His lyrical poems are among his best. His "In Memoriam" is one of the greatest elegies in the language, and his "Idylls of the King" is perhaps the best known of his works.

(xv) **R. Browning** (1812-90) is the most daring and original poet of this century. His greatest work is "The Ring and the Book," and his lyrical poems are also very fine.

(xvi) **Matthew Arnold** (1822-89) was a writer of beautiful prose as well as of exquisite poetry. His best poems are "Sohrab and Rustum," "Thyrsis"—an elegy on Arthur Clough, and "Empedocles on Etna."

(xvii) **John Ruskin** (1819-) is the greatest living master of English prose. His best known work is his "Modern Painters."

PLAN OF DATES
NINETEENTH CENTURY

1800 of Great Britain nd Ireland	1801 Nelson destroys the Danish Fleet	1802 Treaty of Amiens.	1803 War with France Battle of Assaye	1804 Pitt, Prime Min Buonaparte Empe
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1810 The Lines of Torres Vedras (George III permanently insane			Death of Ge Cato Street Conspir	
1811 of Wales Regent	1812 Storming of Budaörs Assassination of Mr Perceval, Prime Minister	1813 Battle of the Pyrenees	1821 Coronation of George IV The Queen shut out of the Abbey	G Fo Sir II
1814 tle of Toulouse gress of Vienna	1815 ' The Hundred Days Battle of Waterloo	1816	1824	Me Ru
1817 bers Corpus Act suspended	1818	1819 Queen Victoria born	1827 Canning Prime Minister Death of Canning	Duke Pr

1840 The Queen marries Prince Albert.			D	
1841	1842	1843 The Free Church movement in Scotland	1851 The Great Exhibition.	Deat
1844	1845 Failure of the Irish Potato Crop	1846 REPEAL OF THE CORN LAWS	1854 The Crimean War	Captu Duty of
1847	1848	1849	1857 THE INDIAN MUTINY Massacre of Cawnpore Capture of Delhi.	Gover trans Co

1870 The Irish Land Act The Elementary Education Act The Franco Prussian War				
1871 ris taken by the Germans iam I of Prussia owned German Emperor	1872 The Ballot Act.	1873	1881 Irish Land Bill War in South Africa Czar Alexander assassinated President Garfield assassinated Death of Lord Beaconsfield	Murder Caver
1874 olseley goes to Coomassie	1875	1876 Mr Disraeli created Earl of Beaconsfield The Bulgarian Atrocities	1884 Murder of Gordon at Khartoum	
1877 Queen Empress of India.	1878 The Congress at Berlin	1879 Zulu War	1887 JUBILEE OF QUEEN VICTORIA.	The Lo

H CENTURY

1805 of Trafalgar	1806 Death of Pitt Death of Fox.	1807	1808 Beginning of Peninsular War	1809 Battle of Corunna Death of Sir J. Moore
1810 Napoleon's coronation First Congress of Vienna				
1811 Death of George III	1812 War of 1812 Death of General Ross			
1813 Battle of Leipzig	1814 Treaty of Fontenoy			
1815 Battle of Waterloo	1816 First Congress of Vienna			
1817 Death of George III	1818 Treaty of Commerce			
1819 Death of George III	1820 Treaty of Commerce			
1821 Death of George III	1822 Treaty of Commerce			
1823 Death of George III	1824 Treaty of Commerce			
1825 Death of George III	1826 Treaty of Commerce			
1827 Death of George III	1828 Treaty of Commerce			
1829 Catholic Emancipation Act	1830 Death of William IV VICTORIA	1831 Death of George IV Opening of Manchester and Liverpool Railway	1832 The Reform Bill	1833 The House of Commons takes its own Divisions
1834 Abolition of Slavery Peel Prime Minister	1835 Melbourne Prime Minister	1836 The House of Commons takes its own Divisions	1837 The House of Commons takes its own Divisions	1838 The House of Commons takes its own Divisions
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1864 Peace with Russia	1865 Death of Palmerston	1866 End of American Civil War	1867 New Reform Bill	1868 War with Abyssinia
1869 The Volunteers	1870 Rescue of Fenian Prisoners at Manchester	1871 Dominion of Canada founded	1872 The House of Commons takes its own Divisions	1873 The House of Commons takes its own Divisions
1874 The House of Commons takes its own Divisions	1875 The House of Commons takes its own Divisions	1876 The House of Commons takes its own Divisions	1877 The House of Commons takes its own Divisions	1878 The House of Commons takes its own Divisions
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GROWTH OF THE ENGLISH CONSTITUTION
SHORT LIVES OF EMINENT PERSONS

Etc

STEPS IN THE GROWTH OF THE ENGLISH CONSTITUTION

I SAXON TIMES

1 The English Nation had a KING and a SUPREME COUNCIL

Egbert may be regarded as the first King of England. In 802 he became king of the West Saxons. In 827 he was king of the English south of the Thames, and—by conquest—Overlord of all the English from the Thames to the Forth.

King or Cynig = son of the race. *Cyn* = Kin and *ing* = men

2 The King was the lord of his people, the chief among his nobles, and the commander-in-chief of the national host (fyrd)

The king's sons and brothers were called *Æthelings*.

3 The Supreme Council or Witenagemôt (= Meeting of the Wise) was the Assembly of the Freemen of the Nation

(i) The Witenagemôt was "democratic in ancient theory, aristocratic in ordinary practice

(ii) The numbers in attendance seem to have been from 50 to 100, the largest number at any meeting was 106

Gemot = meeting *Witena* (the gentile case) = of the Witan (wise)

4. The Witenagemôt had the following powers (a) of electing the King, (b) of deposing the King, (c) of taking a direct share in every act of government

(i) All the old English and Teutonic Kings were elective

(ii) The Witan generally chose the ablest among the Royal Family

(iii) The eldest son, however, was generally chosen, unless he happened to be a minor

(iv) The power of deposition passed, from the Saxon Witenagemôt, to the Norman and English Parliaments, and it was exercised in three cases—that of Edward II in 1327, of Richard II in 1399, and of James II in 1688

5 The Witenagemôt, along with the King, made laws, levied

taxes, made alliances and treaties, made grants of folkland, created and deposed bishops and other great officers of Church and State, and also acted as a Supreme Court of Justice

II NORMAN TIMES

1 Duke William of Normandy is elected and crowned King of the English by the Witan at Westminster on Christmas Day of 1066

(i) The King is now sole and supreme landowner, and all the institutions of the country are assimilated to the feudal type

At a Great Court held on Salisbury Plain he obliged all the landholders of England (60 000) to swear allegiance to him. They thus held their land directly of the sovereign and were immediately responsible to him. They were *this man a man.*"

(ii) The folkland was changed into the King's land (*Terra Regis*)

(iii) All land granted to the Norman nobles was held on feudal tenure—that is, on the condition of military service when the King required it

(iv) The Supreme Court of the kingdom was the King's Court (*Curia Regis*), which is both the Council of the King and the Witenagemot of the nation

(v) In the absence of the King, the Justiciar was Regent

2 The Great Council of the Realm (*Magnum Concilium*) consisted of (i) Archbishops, Bishops, Abbots, and Masters of Religious Orders, (ii) Earls and greater Barons, (iii) Lesser Barons and Knights holding land directly from the King

The lesser barons and knights came in after William I's time

III THE ANGEVIN (PLANTAGENET) PERIOD

1 The Monarchy—feudal as well as national—is restored and reorganised by Henry II

(i) The institution of scutage strengthens the power of the King as against the barons

(ii) The *Grand Assize*, which introduced trial by jury, supersedes the old methods of trial by battle or by compurgation

(iii) The *Assize of Arms* makes the King independent of the feudal barons by reorganising the fyrd or national militia

2 The State is declared supreme in law over the Church

The *Constitutions of Clarendon* strengthen the power of the King as against the Church

3 John is compelled (1215) to sign the Great Charter (Magna Charta)

(i) "The Great Charter of Liberties was the outcome of a movement of all the freemen of the realm, led by their natural leaders the barons. It was not a 'piece of class legislation'. It was a treaty of peace between the King and his people in arms" —LANOWEAD

(ii) "It is the key stone of English liberty" —HALLAM

(iii) The Assembly at St Albans (1213), called to consider the first draught of the reforms mentioned in the Great Charter, is "the first Representative Assembly on record. —(Stubbs) Four men and the reeve were summoned from each township

4. In 1254 (Henry III) two Knights of the Shire are for the first time summoned to attend the National Council

A meeting of the barons of England at London in 1246 was called a Parliament, and this is the first occasion on which the term was employed

5 In 1265 (Henry III) representatives from cities and boroughs are for the first time summoned to attend the National Council

(i) The Battle of Lewes, in 1264, had placed the supreme power in the hands of Earl Simon de Montfort

(ii) Earl Simon is the "founder of the House of Commons"

6 PARLIAMENT now consists of Three Estates —Convocation, the House of Lords, and the House of Commons

(i) The Convocation of the two Provinces of York and Canterbury consisted of an (a) Upper House (the Archbishops, Bishops, and Abbots), and (b) a Lower House (the Agents of the Inferior Clergy)

(ii) The House of Lords consisted of (a) Spiritual Peers (Archbishops, Bishops, Abbots, etc.), and (b) Temporal Peers (Earls and Barons)

(iii) The House of Commons consisted of (a) Knights of the Shire, and (b) Burgesses. The freeholders were the electors in the counties. In the boroughs the freeholders, guild-brethren, and members of the corporation were the electors

7 PARLIAMENT had the following functions (a) to advise the King, (b) to consent or to refuse consent to laws brought forward by the King's ministers, (c) to vote taxes, (d) to act as a High Court of Appeal.

8 In 1295 (Edward I) the FIRST COMPLETE AND MODEL PARLIAMENT of the Three Estates met at Westminster

(i) "Many things have changed but in all main points the Parliament of England, as it exists at this day, is the same as that which gathered round the great Plantagenet —GARDINER.

(i) The votes in aid were discussed by the three bodies separately "The barons and knights gave the King one eleventh of their moveables, the burgesses one seventh, the clergy only one tenth. —LANGMEAD

(ii) The attendance of the clergy in Parliament was "always reluctant and intermittent, and in the fourteenth century ceased altogether" They preferred to attend the Convocation at York or London, which was on a representative basis

(iv) The clergy fixed the amount of self taxation in their meetings of Convocations, and this power they retained till 1664.

(v) The *Confirmatio Chartarum* by Edward I (1297), forbade the collection of any taxes without the consent of Parliament.

PARLIAMENT is the concentration of all the constituents of the shire-motes in a central assembly"—(STUBBS) It is not only a concentration of machinery but an assembly of estates'

9 In 1332 (Edward III) the Knights of the Shire deliberate apart from the Prelates and Barons

(i) In 1333 they sat with the representative citizens and burgesses. But they voted taxation on themselves (subsidies) always apart

(ii) The salary of a Knight of the Shire was 4s a day (=£2 of to day), of a citizen or burgess, 2s

(iii) During the reign of Edward III, three principles of the Constitution got firmly established (a) the illegality of taking the subject's money without the subject's consent, (b) the right of impeachment—that is, of calling Ministers (or Advisers of the King) to account for their actions (thus Ministers were made responsible to Parliament), and (c) the right of the Commons to a share in legislation—on the ground that what concerns the whole realm must be discussed "by all"—that is, by a complete Parliament.

IV THE LANCASTRIAN AND YORKIST PERIOD

1. In 1406 (Henry IV) the Commons insist upon a proper Audit of the accounts of the moneys granted by them.

2 In 1407 (Henry IV) the Commons succeed in gaining for themselves the sole right of originating money grants

3 In 1414 (Henry V) all Statutes are to be based upon petitions presented by the Commons to the King, without any alteration whatever in the wording

' The practice of drawing up the statutes from the petitions and answers after the Session of Parliament had closed, led to the commission of frequent frauds on the part of the King's officers, who often entered Acts of Parliament on the rolls, differing materially from what the Commons had petitioned for, and the King granted — LANGMEAD

4 In 1430 (Henry VI) voting for Knights of the shire is restricted to freeholders "to the value of forty shillings by the year" (= £20)

(i) This is "the first disfranchising Statute on record"

(ii) "The county franchise, which had reached its maximum by the time of Henry IV, was now reduced to its minimum"—LANGMEAD

5 Under the Lancastrian Kings, Parliament had gained for itself several Privileges—among others (a) Freedom of Speech, (b) Freedom from Arrest, (c) the Right to determine disputed elections

V THE TUDOR PERIOD

1 In 1523 (Henry VIII) the House of Commons refuses to grant the whole of the sum demanded by Wolsey for the King

2 In 1539 (Henry VIII) Parliament gives to the King's Proclamations the validity of Acts of Parliament

(i) In this way "Henry VIII contrived to unite the exercise of practically absolute power with respect for constitutional forms—to play the despot by the co-operation of his Parliament"

(ii) In this transaction Parliament was untrue to itself, and made the royal prerogative practically unlimited

3 In 1587 (Elizabeth), Peter Wentworth, M P, raises questions regarding the liberties of the House of Commons, but is committed to the Tower

It was getting to be the custom to spread a rumour through the House, "The Queen dislikes such a matter, beware what you say," etc

VI THE STUART PERIOD

(STRUGGLE BETWEEN KING AND PARLIAMENT)

1. In 1604 (James I) the Commons vindicate their exclusive right to determine disputed elections

King James had tried to refer them to his court of Chancery

2. In 1610 (James I) the Commons remonstrate against the Impositions

(i) Impositions were customs duties put on goods over and above those granted by Parliament.

(ii) The Judges decided that "the King might regulate the customs" This would have made the King practically independent of Parliament, because, in that case, he did not need to come to them for money

3 In 1621 (James I) the Commons enter on their Journals a protest that "their liberties and privileges are the undoubted birth-right of the subjects of England"

(i) King James's view was that he ruled by divine right that, if the Parliament or other body had any power, it was because it had been granted or conceded by him—the source of all power

(ii) The King sent for the Journals of the House of Commons, and tore the above protest out of them with his own royal hand

4 In 1628 (Charles I) the Commons draw up the PETITION OF RIGHT

(i) The Lords wanted to insert the words "leaving entire the *sovereign power*"

(ii) The Commons objected to this that (a) they knew of no power but the power of the laws (b) that they could not *leave* what they had not themselves got, and (c) that the phrase "weakened Magna Charta and all the statutes, and gave an opening to the King to raise loans, to imprison at pleasure, etc etc

5 In 1661 (Charles II) Parliament restores to the King certain prerogatives, among others the command of all sea and land forces

6 In 1689 (William and Mary) Parliament passes the BILL OF RIGHTS

(i) Chatham called the Great Charter, the Petition of Right, and the Bill of Rights "the Bible of the English Constitution"

(ii) "The King at-arms who proclaimed William and Mary before Whitehall Gate announced that the ancient laws by which the prerogative was bounded would henceforth be held as sacred as the prerogative itself."—MACAULAY

7 In 1694 (William and Mary) the Triennial Act is passed

(i) No Parliament to last more than three years

(ii) Three years not to pass without a Parliament

8 In 1703 (Anne) the Commons stop an appeal to the House of Lords on an election question

(i) This was the case of Ashby, a burgess of Aylesbury, who had been refused permission to vote at an election.

(ii) In 1868 the trial of disputed elections was handed over to the superior judges.

9 In 1707 (Anne) the Parliaments of England and Scotland unite

- (i) The House of Commons receives forty five Scottish members
- (ii) The House of Lords receives sixteen peers elected by all the peers of Scotland

10 In 1708 (Anne) no holders of pensions or offices can sit in Parliament

(i) Hence, if a member accepts office, he must vacate his seat, and present himself again to the electors

(ii) A member of Parliament cannot, according to law, resign his seat. Hence he asks the Government for the Stewardship of the Chiltern Hundreds (an office without salary or duties), does *not* present himself again to the electors, and his seat is vacant

11 In 1711 (Anne) a Property Qualification Bill for members of the House of Commons, requiring them to possess property of a certain annual value, is passed.

- (i) This annual value was £600 for county, and £300 for borough, members
- (ii) This act was modified in 1838, and rescinded in 1858

VII THE HANOVERIAN PERIOD

1 In 1716 (George I) the Septennial Act is passed

- (i) This Bill was introduced in the House of Lords
- (ii) Thirty one peers protested, on the ground that no Parliament had a right to lengthen its own existence
- (iii) In 1728 (George II) the publication of the party debates is forbidden—as a breach of privilege. This prohibition was repeated in 1738 (George II)

Mr Pulteney said ‘To print or publish the speeches of gentlemen in this House looks very like making them accountable without doors for what they say within’ So it was

2 In 1762 (George III) Bribery was made illegal

- (i) Bribery was of two kinds (a) of M P s, and (b) of Electors
- (ii) There were two ways in which an M P could purchase a seat (a) by buying it direct from the proprietor or the corporation, (b) by corrupting individual electors

3 In 1771 (George III) the publication of party debates was tolerated

- (i) Reporting is still, technically, a “breach of privilege
- (ii) “The entire people are now present, as it were, and assist in the deliberations of Parliament”—ERSKINE MAY

4 In 1832 (William IV) the **REFORM BILL** passes

(i) The King consented to create new peers, if that should be necessary to carry the new measure

(ii) But the Duke of Wellington persuaded a number of peers to stay away, and the House of Lords passed the Bill by 106 to 22

5 In 1836 (William IV) the House of Commons publishes its own **Division Lists**

6 In 1861 (Victoria) the power of the House of Lords to interfere with a Money Bill is finally denied.

7 In 1867, a **NEW REFORM BILL** is passed.

(i) In English boroughs household suffrage was granted, in counties, £12 rental was required

(ii) In Ireland the borough franchise was reduced to £4 rental

8 In 1885 a **REFORM BILL** (the third this century) was passed, adding two million new voters to the register, and dividing the three kingdoms into electoral divisions

THE CONSTITUTION AS AT PRESENT

1 The Government of the United Kingdom (with its Colonies and Dependencies) is vested in the Sovereign, the Lords, and the Commons

(i) The Crown is hereditary

(ii) The House of Lords consists of 478 peers—283 of whom are English hereditary peers—There are 26 Spiritual Peers

(iii) The House of Commons contains 670 members 495 English, 103 Irish, and 72 Scotch

2 The power of the Sovereign is delegated to the Ministry (the Cabinet)

(i) 'The Sovereign is only at the head of the dignified part of the Constitution The Prime Minister (First Lord of the Treasury) is at the head of the efficient part. The Crown is, according to the saying, the 'fountain of honour', but the Treasury is the spring of business'—BAGEHOT

(ii) The Cabinet is "not known to the Constitution In its origin, it was a kind of small committee of the Privy Council. It is now a meeting of the twelve or fifteen foremost statesmen, who command a following in the House and the Country

It was under the two reigns of George I. and II. that the system of government by CABINET (or Inner Committee of Ministers) was finally established. The first could not speak English at all the second imperfectly and both looked on Great Britain as a mere appendage to their own beloved Kingdom of Hanover

3 The House of Lords (Upper House of Parliament) is chiefly a revising and suspending House

(i) "It is part of our duty to originate legislation but it is also a most important part of our duty to check the unconsiderate, rash, hasty, and undigested legislation of the other House" — LORD LYNDHURST

(ii) If the Peers make a lengthened resistance to the legislation of the Commons, the constitutional course is for the Sovereign to create more peers William IV gave a written permission to Earl Grey, in 1832, "to create such a number of peers as will be sufficient to ensure the passing of the Reform Bill"

(iii) The Chairman of the House of Lords is the Lord High Chancellor who sits on the Woolsack.

WOOL was at one time the chief source of the wealth of England. Hence the appropriateness of the chief law-official sitting upon it.

4. The House of Commons (Lower House of Parliament) is a body which represents the counties, boroughs, and Universities of the Three Kingdoms It has practically all power It alone can originate money bills; and it can originate any bill The Leader of the House is the Prime Minister, if he is not a peer

(i) Its chief function is legislation—the making of laws

(ii) Its second function is to vote "Supply"—that is, to vote sums of money for each department of government and defence

(iii) The third function is to provide political education for the whole nation

(iv) The House of Commons not only contains the larger part of the Ministry, it also contains "Her Majesty's Opposition," whose duty as well as whose function it is to criticise, amend, and improve all measures submitted to the House

5 A bill has to go through three Readings in each House before it can become an Act of Parliament (It receives the Royal Assent after passing both Houses)

(i) The Bill is read for the first time and there is generally no opposition to, and no debate on, the first reading The Bill is then printed.

(ii) The debate takes place on the second reading

(iii) If the Bill pass the second reading, the House goes into Committee That is, the Speaker leaves the chair, the Chairman of Committee takes a lower chair and the Bill is considered, discussed, and debated clause by clause—and changes made wherever they are shown to be necessary

(iv) The House (it is still "the House," though in "Committee") may "divide" (that is, vote by going into different lobbies) on each word, phrase, or clause of the Bill.

(v) When the Bill has passed through Committee, it is reported to the House as having passed the Committee It is then brought up for the third reading, which is very seldom either debated or opposed.

(vi) Then it is sent on to the House of Lords, where it goes through the same process of three readings

(vii) If it is altered there, it goes back to the House of Commons. If the Commons agree with the Lords, well and good, if not, there is a conference between selected members of the two Houses

(viii) When a Bill passes both Houses, it receives the Royal assent. The Clerk of the House rises and says in Norman French, "La Reyne le veut" (the Queen wills it).

(ix) The Sovereign possesses, by law and by the Constitution, the right of Veto (Latin = I forbid), but this right has not been exercised since 1707

6 The head of the Cabinet (or Ministry) is the Prime Minister (Premier). He is the leader of the "party in power", and it is the Country that puts the party in this position

(i) The following members of the Government are always in the Cabinet. The First Lord of the Treasury (who is generally Premier), the Lord Chancellor (who is Chairman of the House of Lords), the Chancellor of the Exchequer (who must always have a seat in the House of Commons), the Home Secretary, the Foreign Secretary (who is sometimes Prime Minister), the Secretary for the Colonies, the Secretary for India (which is a "Crown Dependency"), the Secretary for War (who has the control of the Army), the President of the Council (=the Privy Council)

(ii) The following may or may not have seats in the Cabinet. The First Lord of the Admiralty (=Secretary for the Navy), the President of the Board of Trade, the President of the Local Government Board, the Lord Privy Seal, the Chief Secretary for Ireland (who is now almost always in the Cabinet), the Postmaster General (who is seldom), the Chancellor of the Duchy of Lancaster (a Duchy which is an appanage of the Crown) and the Vice President of the Council (=the Minister of Education) — The presence of any of these in the Cabinet depends on his individual ability

(iii) We now generally speak of "Lord Salisbury's Government" or "Mr Gladstone's Government."

7 When the Ministry in power loses the confidence of the Commons, or has not a good "working majority," it recommends the Queen to dissolve Parliament, and "goes to the Country"

(i) When Parliament is dissolved, there is a General Election.

(ii) The Minister whose party has a majority, assumes "the reins of office"

8 Our Colonies have each a Parliament and Executive of their own, but the Sovereign is represented by a Governor-General, who is controlled in London by the Colonial Secretary

(i) India is directly under the Secretary for India—that is under the Crown. The Indian Council, the chairman of which is the Secretary for India, sits in London

(ii) Ceylon is also a Crown Dependency, and is ruled from London, and not from Madras or Calcutta.

SHORT LIVES OF EMINENT PERSONS.

Albert Prince (1819-1861), was a son of the Duke of Saxe-Coburg-Gotha. He was married in 1840 to Queen Victoria, taking the rank and title, however, not of King, but of Prince Consort. He was respected and beloved by the nation, he encouraged literature, science, and art, and he originated the first International Exhibition of 1851.

Alfred the Great (849-901) was crowned king of Wessex in 871. He gained many great victories over the Danish invaders, though at one time he was forced to hide for his life in the Isle of Athelney. He was even greater as a ruler than as a general. To him we owe the foundation of the Constitution and the first beginnings of a navy. He was the first of the "Makers of England."

Augustine, Saint was sent by Pope Gregory the Great in 596 to convert the pagans of England. Ethelbert, who was then king of Kent, received him kindly and after a time accepted the Christian faith. In the year 600 the Pope made Augustine Archbishop of Canterbury. He died about 607.

Bacon, Francis (1561-1626), Baron Verulam, Viscount St. Albans, was the second son of Lord Keeper Bacon. He was educated at Trinity College, Cambridge, and at Gray's Inn, London. Queen Elizabeth admired the abilities of the boy, and used to call him her "Young Lord Keeper." He entered Parliament in 1584 as M.P. for Melcombe Regis. In 1586 he was Benchet of Gray's Inn. In 1613 he was appointed Attorney General. In 1618 he became Lord High Chancellor, and was raised to the peerage as Baron Verulam. Three years after, he became Viscount St. Albans. In the same year (1621) he was accused of bribery, was tried by the House of Lords, found guilty, and sentenced to pay a fine of £40,000, and to be imprisoned in the Tower during His Majesty's pleasure. Bacon remained only a few days in the Tower, and James remitted his fine. His best-known works are the "Essays" and the "Advancement of Learning."

Balliol, John (1250-1314), claimed the crown of Scotland along with Robert Bruce. Edward I of England was called in to decide the dispute and pronounced in favour of Balliol, who did homage to Edward for his kingdom in 1292. He was very unpopular with the Scottish nobles and was at length forced by them into war with Edward. Being defeated at Dunbar, he resigned his crown. His widow piously preserved his memory by endowing Balliol College in Oxford.

Becket, Thomas (1117-1170), the son of a London merchant, obtained the patronage of Theobald, Archbishop of Canterbury, by whose influence and his own abilities he rapidly rose into eminence both in Church and State. He became Henry II's Chancellor, and in 1161 was made Archbishop of Canterbury. By opposing Henry's encroachments on ecclesiastical privileges, he fell into dis-

favour, and some hasty words let fall by the king led to Becket's murder by four knights in Canterbury Cathedral

Bede (672-735) is generally known as the Venerable Bede. He was a man of great learning, who wrote an Ecclesiastical History and translated into Anglo-Saxon the Gospel of St John. He made Northumbria the successful rival of Wessex as the literary centre of Anglo-Saxon England—a position it retained till the Danes ravaged the country.

Blake, Robert (1599-1657), became a Puritan, and, on the outbreak of the Civil War, joined the Republican troops. He received the thanks of Parliament for his defence of Tannton. Being made Admiral, he distinguished himself against Prince Rupert, but his most famous engagements were with the Dutch Admiral, Van Tromp.

Bolingbroke, Henry St John, Viscount (1678-1751), negotiated with great skill the Peace of Utrecht. In 1714 he lost his office of Foreign Secretary, and, withdrawing to France, intrigued with the Pretender. He was impeached by Parliament of high treason, and also lost the Pretender's confidence. After some attempts to get himself reinstated at home, he retired altogether into private life.

Brougham, Henry Peter (1778-1868), Baron Brougham and Vaux, was the eldest son of Henry Brougham, a gentleman of Cumberland. He was born at the West Bow, Edinburgh. He was educated at the High School and University of Edinburgh. In 1802 he assisted in starting the *Edinburgh Review*. In 1805 he settled in London. In 1810 he entered Parliament as M.P. for Camelford. In 1830 he was M.P. for Yorkshire, in 1831 he was made Lord High Chancellor, and called to the House of Lords as Baron Brougham and Vaux. He was never offered office again. He died at his chateau at Cannes in 1868. He wrote a number of books, the best of which is perhaps his "Historical Sketches of Statesmen."

Buckingham, George Villiers, Duke of (1592-1628), was the favourite both of James I. and Charles I. His influence was so great that everything at court was managed according to his wishes. In 1624 he led the country into war with Spain, and he afterwards brought about a war with France. He commanded the expedition of 1627 which failed in the attempt to relieve La Rochelle, and he was on the point of setting out on another expedition when he was stabbed at Portsmouth.

His son, of the same name (1627-1688), was a member of the Cabal Ministry, and one of the most profligate of Charles II.'s favourites.

Burke, Edmund (1729-1797), was one of the finest British orators, and a great statesman and author. He took the part of the American colonists, led the impeachment of Warren Hastings, and, on the outbreak of the French Revolution, strongly opposed its principles. His best-known works are the "Inquiry Into the Sublime and Beautiful" and the "Letters on a Regicide Peace."

Burleigh, William Cecil, Lord (1520-1598), a firm and sagacious statesman, was the trusted counsellor of Queen Elizabeth. In the reign of Edward VI. he had been Secretary of State. His Protestant opinions prevented his holding any public office under Mary, and he only escaped persecution by outwardly conforming to Catholicism. On Elizabeth's accession he again became Secretary of State, and in 1572 he was appointed Lord High Treasurer. He was the moving spirit in the state until his death.

Canning George (1770 1827), was appointed by Pitt Under Secretary of State, and afterwards Treasurer of the Navy Under the Duke of Portland he became Foreign Secretary in 1807, and in 1814 he was sent as an ambassador to Portugal. In 1822 he was again Foreign Secretary, and in 1827, the year of his death, he became Prime Minister He was a witty writer as well as an able statesman

Canute, son of Sweyn, king of Denmark, invaded England and forced Edmnd Ironside to yield up to him the country south of the Thames In 1017 Edmnd was murdered, and Canute ruled as solo king until his death in 1035

Castlereagh, Robert Stewart, Viscount and afterwards Marquis of Londonderry (1769 1822), was born in Ireland, and educated at St John's College, Cambridge He entered the House as M P for County Down—a seat which cost him £30,000 In 1798 he was Chief Secretary for Ireland, and in that capacity a strong advocate for the Union He was president of the Board of Control and Secretary at War in Pitt's administration. It was he who mismanaged the Waleheren Expedition. Canning insisted on his dismissal Castlereagh challenged him, and in the duel Canning was badly wounded In 1812 he became Foreign Minister, under Lord Liverpool, and remained in this office till his death As Foreign Minister he was very unpopular both in England and on the Continent In 1822, worn out with hard work, his mind gave way, and he committed suicide

Caxton, William (1412 1491), the first English printer, learned his art in the Netherlands, where he translated into English and printed the "History of Troy" and the "Game and Playe of the Chess" About 1474 he came to England and established a press at Westminster, from which he issued sixty books

Chatham, William Pitt, Earl of (1708 1778) William Pitt (the elder) was one of the greatest British statesmen He became Prime Minister at the age of forty-five, and his term of office was distinguished by brilliant victories over the French in America and elsewhere In 1766 he was created Earl of Chatham, having previously won for himself the more notable title of the "Great Commoner" His last great speech was in opposition to the severe treatment of the American colonists, and a month after its delivery he died

Chaucer Geoffrey (1340 1400), was the grandson of Richard Chaucer, a vintner in London. Of his father nothing is known The name *Chaucer* is found in the Roll of Battle Abbey He served in France under Edward III, was taken prisoner, and freed at the Peace of Bretigny He was sent on a mission to Italy, where he met Petrarch He was M P or Knight of the Shire for the county of Kent He was also Comptroller of the Customs on wool and wine His greatest work is the "Canterbury Tales"

Cobham, Sir John Oldcastle, Lord, was a pious and learned nobleman who became a follower of Wychiffe Being persecuted for his opinions, he escaped into Wales, where he remained four years in hiding He was at length taken and burned, in the year 1417

Coverdale, Myles (1488 1568), was brought up, like Martin Luther, as an Augustinian friar, but afterwards adopted the principles of the Reformation, and became a favourite of Thomas Cromwell He made an English translation of the Bible, "out of Douche and Latyn," which he finished in 1535

Cranmer, Thomas (1489 1556), a great churchman, obtained the favour of Henry VIII by his advice concerning the divorce of Katharine of Arragon. In 1533 he became Archbishop of Canterbury, and powerfully helped the Reformation movement. Thus he continued to do in the reign of Edward VI, but under Mary he was tried for heresy. Through fear of death he recanted his principles, but he was, notwithstanding, burned at the stake. He met his doom at the last courageously, re-avowing the Protestant faith.

Cromwell, Oliver (1599 1658), entered Parliament in 1628, and ranged himself on the Puritan side. When the Civil War broke out, he took command of a troop, and so distinguished himself against the Royalists that he was appointed commander of the Parliamentary army. He subdued Ireland, overcame the Scots at Dunbar and Worcester, dismissed Parliament, and was made Lord Protector of the Commonwealth. He declined the title of King, but really held the royal power, which he used to the great advantage of the country at home and abroad.

Cromwell Thomas *Vide Essex*

Darnley, Henry Stuart, Lord was the husband of Mary Queen of Scots, and the father of James I of England. In the year 1567, when he was recovering from an illness, he was blown up in the house of Kirk of Field, near Edinburgh. Of this crime the Earl of Bothwell, who shortly afterwards married the Queen, is supposed to have been the author.

Drake Sir Francis (1545 1595), one of the most famous of the famous Elizabethan sailors, was born in Devonshire. Entering the navy and obtaining a command, he attacked the Spanish settlements in America and gained both plunder and glory. He made a voyage round the world, and was knighted by Queen Elizabeth. In the fleet which destroyed the Spanish Armada he was Vice Admiral, and played a distinguished part.

Dundee, Viscount (b. 1649), John Graham of Claverhouse, was one of the Royalist Commanders in Scotland under Charles II, and assisted in the persecution of the Covenanters. He was created Viscount Dundee in 1688. Refusing to recognise William of Orange as king, he raised a revolt, and at the battle of Killiecrankie, in 1689, he defeated General Mackay but was himself slain.

Dunstan Saint (925 988), was Abbot of Glastonbury, the place where he was born. He was banished by Edwy from the kingdom, but Edgar made him Bishop of Worcester and, in 959, Archbishop of Canterbury. He took a large share in affairs of State, while the result of his influence upon the Church was to bring it more completely under the Pope's authority than it had ever before been.

Essex, Lord Howard of (1536 1624) a great English seaman, was appointed Lord High Admiral in 1585, and in 1588 commanded the fleet that defeated the Spanish Armada. He was afterwards made Earl of Nottingham, and in 1599 held for a short time the sole command both of the army and of the navy.

Essex Robert Devereux, Earl of (1567 1601), was a favourite of Queen Elizabeth. He served with distinction in the Netherlands, and was made Earl Marshal of England. Having displeased the Queen, he was sent, as an honourable banishment, to Ireland, but he disobeyed his instructions, and returned to England without leave. He was shortly after tried and beheaded.

Essex, Thomas Cromwell, Earl of (1498-1540), was the confidential friend and servant of Cardinal Wolsey, after whose death he became a favourite of Henry VIII. He assisted the King in the suppression of the monasteries, and was created Earl of Essex, but, by his share in the marriage with Anne of Cleves, he lost the royal favour, was accused of high treason, and beheaded.

Eugene Prince of Savoy (1663-1736), served Austria against the Turks and the French. He was associated with the Duke of Marlborough in his great Netherlands campaigns, and notably at the battle of Blenheim in 1704.

"Great praise the Duke of Marlborough won,
And our good Prince Eugene

Fawkes, Guy, was one of the conspirators in the plot to blow up James I and his Parliament. For this he was executed in 1605 and his effigy is still burnt on the 5th of November, the anniversary of the day on which the Gunpowder Plot was discovered.

Flambard, Ralph, an unscrupulous Norman churchman, was chaplain and chief adviser to William Rufus. He proved himself very skilful in extorting money for his master and for himself, and in this way he earned the cordial hatred of all classes of the people. The King rewarded his services with the Bishopric of Durham. He died in 1123.

Fox, Charles James (1740-1806), a great statesman, held various minor offices, and assisted in opposition, until in 1782 he became Foreign Secretary under the Marquis of Rockingham. Shortly afterwards he formed a coalition ministry with Lord North. He was the most eminent rival of the younger Pitt, and an enthusiastic supporter of the French Revolution.

Gardiner, Stephen (1483-1555), was Secretary to Cardinal Wolsey, and helped in Henry VIII's divorce from Katharine of Aragon. In 1531 he was made Bishop of Winchester. Under Edward VI his opposition to the Reformation led to his imprisonment, but on Mary's accession he became Prime Minister. He took a vigorous part in the persecution of the Protestants.

George, Prince of Denmark (1653-1708), was son in law of James II, having married the Princess Anne. At the Revolution of 1688 he aided William of Orange, and when Anne became Queen he was appointed Lord High Admiral.

Godwin, Earl (*d.* 1053), was instrumental in obtaining the crown for Edward the Confessor and became his principal minister. The Norman influence, however, which was so powerful with Edward and to which Godwin, as a thorough Englishman, was hostile, brought about his downfall and in 1051 he was outlawed. In 1052 he invaded the country with a fleet, and, as no one could be induced to fight against him, he was restored to his original position. He died in the following year.

Gordon, Lord George (1750-1793), bitterly opposed the bill for the toleration of Catholics, and was the cause, in 1780, of the Gordon Riots. He was afterwards imprisoned for a libel on the Queen of France, and died in Newgate.

Graham of Claverhouse *Vide* Dundee

Graham of Montrose *Vide* Montrose

Guthrum the Dane (9th century) was king of East Anglia in the time of Alfred the Great. He defeated Alfred and forced him to take refuge in the Isle of Athelney. The latter, however, succeeded in reassembling an army, and at the siege of Ethandune in 878 compelled Guthrum to make peace. The Danes were to accept Christianity, and a part of the kingdom (the Danelagh) was to be theirs, on condition that they did not molest the English. Guthrum died in 890.

Hampden, John (1594-1643), a Buckinghamshire gentleman, made a noble resistance, in 1636, to Charles I.'s illegal tax of ship money. In the Civil War he fought on the side of Parliament, and was mortally wounded at Chalgrove Field.

Harley, Robert. *Vide* Oxford.

Hastings, Warren (1733-1818), went out to India as a writer or clerk in the service of the East India Company. He rapidly rose in the service, and was at length made the first Governor General of India. His measures were firm and successful, but he was accused of oppression and extortion. After a trial lasting seven years he was acquitted, but the costs of the trial brought him almost to beggary.

Hawkins, Sir John (1520-1595), was one of Elizabeth's admirals, and, like Drake, a Devonshire man. He took part in the defeat of the Spanish Armada, as Rear Admiral of the English fleet. In 1573 he became Treasurer of the Navy. He founded the slave trade in the West Indies.

Hereward the Wake (= Watchful), "the last of the Saxons," refused to submit to William the Conqueror. With a company of outlaws, among whom were Siward and Morcar, he fortified the Isle of Ely, in the marshes of the Fens, and there maintained a desperate resistance. In 1071 William besieged and broke up his camp, but Hereward escaped. What afterwards became of him is uncertain. He is the hero of Kingsley's fascinating romance.

Hotspur. *Vide* Percy, Henry.

Howard, Henry. *Vide* Surrey.

Howard, Lord. *Vide* Effingham.

Howard, Thomas. *Vide* Norfolk.

Hyde, Edward (1608-74), Earl of Clarendon, was born in Wiltshire, and educated at Oxford. He was a member of the Long Parliament, and on the side of the Parliamentary party. But, when civil war broke out, he took the King's side, and, in 1642, was appointed Chancellor of the Exchequer. He went into exile with Prince Charles. In 1660—at the Restoration—he was made Lord High Chancellor with the title of Baron Hyde, and he was afterwards created Viscount Cornbury and Earl of Clarendon. He was accused of high treason, being suspected of having sold Dunkirk to the French, and he left the country. He died in exile at Rouen. His daughter, Anne Hyde, became the wife of the Duke of York (James II.), and he was thus the grandfather of two queens of Great Britain. His great work—and it is an English classic—is the "History of the Rebellion," that is, of the Civil Wars in Charles I.'s reign.

Jeffreys, Judge (1640-1689), conducted the "Bloody Assize" in the West of England, at which the prisoners who had shared in Monmouth's rebellion were tried. His

eruel severity was rewarded by his appointment as Lord Chancellor, but at the Revolution he was imprisoned, and died in the Tower

Junius was the signature attached to a brilliant series of letters which appeared from January 1769 to January 1772, containing most trenchant criticism of the various public men to whom they were addressed. It has never been quite settled who was the author of the letters, but most probably it was Sir Philip Francis, a member of Parliament and political pamphleteer.

Knox, John (1505-1572) was educated at St Andrews. In 1542 he became a Protestant. In 1547 the French, in revenge for the murder of Cardinal Beaton, besieged St Andrews, and Knox, among others, was taken prisoner and sent to the galleys. Some years afterwards he was ardently preaching the Reformation, first at St Andrews and then at Edinburgh. He did more to spread the reformed doctrines in Scotland than any other man. He was not afraid to administer stern rebukes to Mary Queen of Scots for her attachment to Catholicism and her gay life.

Lanfranc (1005-1089) was Abbot of St Stephen's at Caen, whence he was called by William the Conqueror to the Archbishopric of Canterbury, vacant by the deposition of Stigand. He rebuilt the cathedral and restored the supremacy of the See. He was a learned man and possessed much influence, not only in the Church, but also in the State.

Langlande, Robert (1332-1400), was born in Shropshire. He wrote a poem, in alliterative verse (or head rhyme), called the "Vision concerning Piers the Plowman." It describes the miseries of the labouring classes of the fourteenth century. It was written in the Midland Dialect. Langlande's work bears the same relation to the Saxon or purely English part of the nation that Chaucer's "Canterbury Tales" bear to the Norman part.

Latimer, Hugh (1490-1555), one of the English martyrs to the cause of Protestantism, became Henry VIII.'s chaplain in 1530. In 1535 he obtained the Bishopric of Worcester, but his resistance to the Six Articles led to his imprisonment. Under Edward VI. his eloquent preaching made him widely popular. When Mary ascended the throne and began her career of persecution, Latimer, with his friend Ridley, was burned at Oxford.

Laud, William (1573-1645), the celebrated prelate of the reign of Charles I., was appointed Bishop of St. David's in 1621. After filling two other sees he was raised in 1633 to the Primacy. He attempted to force the English liturgy upon the people of Scotland, and was very harsh towards dissent in England. His support of the Earl of Strafford's measures caused him to be impeached along with that nobleman, and after an imprisonment of two and a half years he was tried and beheaded.

Leicester, Robert Dudley, Earl of (1532-1588), was the son of the Duke of Northumberland. He early became the favourite of Queen Elizabeth, and it was at one time thought that she might marry him. He himself, however, was three times secretly married—first to the unhappy Amy Robsart, in whose sudden death he was suspected of having some share. In 1575 Elizabeth visited him at Kenilworth, and was entertained with great splendour. He was put in command of the

expedition to Holland in 1580, but only succeeded in proving his incapacity. Throughout his life he was the rival and enemy of Burleigh.

Leicester, Simon de Montfort Earl of (1206-1265), led the English barons in their struggle against Henry III, and forced the king to accept the Provisions of Oxford. On Henry's violating the Provisions, De Montfort met and defeated him at the battle of Lewes in 1264. In 1265 the first Parliament containing knights and burgesses was summoned by him, and he may be called the father of the present House of Commons. At the battle of Evesham he was defeated by Prince Edward and killed.

Leslie Alexander first Earl of Leven, born in Athole about 1550, took service in early life under Gustavus Adolphus, and rose in the Swedish army to the rank of field marshal. In 1638 events in Scotland were hastening to a crisis, and he was entreated to transfer his services to his own country. He responded to the call, and was appointed in 1639 lord general of all the Scottish forces. In the following year he invaded England, and captured Newcastle and Durham. He subsequently fought at Marston Moor, and took part in the siege of Newark. After Charles I was beheaded, Leslie opposed Cromwell and intrigued in favour of Charles II. In 1651 he was taken prisoner by Cromwell's troops at Alyth in Perthshire, and after a short detention in the Tower was allowed, on certain conditions, to reside at his son-in-law's house in Northumberland. Through the intervention of Queen Christina of Sweden he was permitted to return to Scotland in 1654. He lived to see the Restoration, and died in 1661.

Llewellyn, the last Welsh Prince of Wales, was ordered by Edward I to do homage, but refused. Edward in consequence made war upon him and defeated him in 1277. Five years later Llewellyn was again in "rebellion" and was killed in battle.

Longchamp William de a Norman ecclesiastic, was Bishop of Ely and Justiciar of England in the reign of Richard I. During Richard's absence, Longchamp resisted the attempts of Prince John tooust his brother, found out where the king was imprisoned and raised money for his ransom. He was, however, overbearing and extortionate, and in 1191 he lost his office. Richard, on his return, made him Chancellor. He died in 1197.

Luther Martin (1483-1546) was in early life an Augustinian monk and Professor of Philosophy in the University of Wittenberg. The sale of indulgences by Tetzel roused his indignation, and turned his attention to other abuses of the Church of Rome, from which, step by step, he severed himself. In 1520 he was excommunicated, and was thenceforward the acknowledged leader of the Reformation.

Malcolm III known as Malcolm Canmore, was the son of that Duncan who was murdered by Mabeth. He was crowned King of Scotland in 1058. After the Norman Conquest he gave shelter to Edgar the Atheling, and in 1070 he ravaged the North of England. William thereupon invaded Scotland and compelled Malcolm to do homage. In 1079 and again in 1091 Malcolm made incursions into England. On the latter occasion, he concluded a treaty with William Rufus and did homage to him. He revolted, however, in 1093, marched into England, and was slain at the siege of Alnwick.

March, Roger Mortimer, Earl of (1287 1330), lived in the reigns of Edward I and Edward II, by the latter of whom he was made Lieutenant of Ireland in 1317. Three years later, he was imprisoned for his share in the attempt to banish the Despencers, the king's favourites but he escaped to France and joined Queen Isabella. The two returned in 1326 to England, deposed and murdered the king, and for four years ruled the country at their will, when the young king, Edward III, determined to submit no longer to Mortimer's sway, had him seized, accused of high treason, and hanged.

Marlborough, John Churchill Duke of (1650 1722), after serving with distinction on the Continent, assisted in crushing Monmouth's rebellion. At the Revolution he transferred his allegiance to William of Orange, and in 1689 he was sent to command the English troops in the Netherlands. In 1700 he became Commander-in-Chief of the allied forces. His wonderful victories—Blenheim, 1704 Ramillies, 1706, Oudenarde, 1708, Malplaquet, 1709—gained him a renown which has been eclipsed by that of no other British commander except Wellington. As a diplomatist, he was more remarkable for ability than for principle, and no more than once came under the suspicion of treason.

Mary II. (1662 1694) was the daughter of James II, and the wife of William III. She had been brought up a Protestant and at the Revolution she forsook her father, and was crowned, along with her husband, in 1689. Her character was strong and amiable. During William's absence in Ireland, her prompt and wise action prevented a serious disaffection in the fleet commanded by Russell. She died of small pox eight years before the death of her husband.

Mary Queen of Scots (1542 1587) was the daughter of James V of Scotland, and the mother of James I of England. She married, in 1558, the Dauphin of France, who survived the marriage scarcely more than two years. In 1561 Mary returned to her native country and was crowned Queen. Her Catholic opinions soon began to give offence to the Reformers. In 1565 she was married to Lord Darnley, her first cousin. Two years later he was murdered, and Mary married the Earl of Bothwell, who was strongly suspected of being her husband's murderer. The Scottish nobles now rose against her and forced her to abdicate. After an unsuccessful attempt to recover the crown she fled to England and threw herself upon Elizabeth's protection. The English Queen, however, finding her the centre of perpetual plots, and that her own life was not safe so long as Mary lived, caused her to be put to death. Beautiful, sinful, and unhappy, Mary Stuart is one of the most romantic figures in all history.

Matilda wife of William the Conqueror, was the daughter of Baldwin, Count of Flanders. She became the mother of Robert of Normandy, William Rufus, Henry I, and eight other children. It is supposed that she worked the famous Bayeux Tapestry. She died in 1083.

Matilda first wife of Henry I, was the daughter of Malcolm III of Scotland. Her works of piety and charity gained her the title of the "Good Queen Maud". She died in 1118.

Matilda (1103 1167), daughter of Henry I of England, married Henry V, Emperor of Germany, and in consequence is often called "the Empress". On her father's

death the throne was usurped by Stephen. Matilda invaded England in 1139, but after eight years of civil war she was forced to give up her claim. By her second husband Geoffrey of Anjou, she was the mother of Henry II.

Matilda of Boulogne was the wife of Stephen and the daughter of Eustace, Count of Boulogne. In 1137, while Stephen was in France, she managed the affairs of the country. During the civil war she took an active part with her husband against the Empress Matilda. She died in 1151.

Milton John (1608-1674), was one of the greatest English poets, and a prose writer of great force on the side of civil and religious freedom. He became Latin Secretary to the Council of State, and subsequently Private Secretary to the Lord Protector Cromwell. He was the author of "Paradise Lost," "Samson Agonistes," "Comus," "Lycidas," etc. and, in prose, of the "Areopagitica," "Iconoclastes," "A Defence of the People of England," etc. For many years he was quite blind.

Monck, General (1608-1670), served under Charles I. against the Scots in 1639, and helped to suppress the Irish Rebellion in 1641. After the king's execution he took service under Cromwell, became Commander in Scotland, and fought at the battle of Dunbar. When the Commonwealth was broken up by the death of Oliver and the incapacity of Richard Cromwell, Monck, with the army at his command, was mainly instrumental in the Restoration of the Stuarts. He was rewarded with the title of Duke of Albemarle. Along with Prince Rupert he won a great naval victory over the Dutch in 1666.

Monmouth, James, Duke of (1649-1685), was a natural son of Charles II. In 1685 he landed in England to dispute the right of James II. to the throne. The people of the West joined him with enthusiasm, and at Taunton he was proclaimed king. In the battle of Sedgemoor, however, he was utterly routed and his cause ruined. He was captured in a ditch, taken to London, and executed.

Montrose, James Graham, Marquis of (1613-1650), was a famous general on the side of Charles I. in Scotland. He defeated the Covenanters in 1644 at Tibbermure, and in 1645 at Inverlochy and Kilsyth. In the latter year, however, he lost the battle of Philiphaugh, and fled the country. Five years later he landed in the Orkney Isles, but was captured and hanged in Edinburgh.

Napier, Sir Charles James (1782-1853), fought with distinction in the Peninsular War. In 1841 he was sent out to India where he conquered the territory of Sind. In one battle, with only 1600 men, he defeated a force of 30,000. He was made governor of Sind, and ruled the territory most successfully.

Note.—Sir Charles James Napier is not to be confounded with his cousin, Sir Charles Napier, the Admiral (1786-1860).

Napoleon Buonaparte (1769-1821), the most famous of the rulers of France, was born in Corsica. During the Revolution he attracted notice by quelling a revolt against the Convention Government. In 1798 he attempted the conquest of Egypt and Syria, but in this he was unsuccessful. Returning home in 1799, he was declared First Consul. Next year, having marched across the Alps, he won the battle of Marengo, and conquered Italy. In 1804 he was crowned Emperor, and conceived the idea of invading England. Great preparations were made, but the design was never carried out. In 1805 he overthrew the Austrian army at Austerlitz.

He was now almost master of Europe, and was able to fill several thrones with creatures of his own. In 1807 he gained a great victory over the Prussians at Jena, while in 1806 he routed an Austrian force at Wagram. The war in the Peninsula, his disastrous Russian expedition, and his defeat at the battle of Leipzig by the combined armies of Russia, Prussia, and Austria, broke his power. He was compelled in 1814 to abdicate and retire to the Isle of Elba. Escaping thence, he returned to France and easily collected an army. On the 18th of June 1815 he met the allied forces of Britain and Prussia at Waterloo. This memorable battle decided his fate. He was banished to the island of St Helena, where he died.

Nelson, Horatio, Viscount (1758 1805), distinguished himself in several minor engagements, and was appointed, in 1796, Commodore in the Mediterranean fleet commanded by Jervis. He fought in the battle off Cape St Vincent, and was promoted to be Rear Admiral. In the same year he went in pursuit of the French fleet, attacked it in Aboukir Bay, and almost entirely destroyed it. In 1800 he bombarded Copenhagen. Five years later he gained one of the most famous naval triumphs in the history of the world, by defeating the combined fleets of France and Spain off Cape Trafalgar. He fell, like Wolfe, in the moment of victory.

Norfolk Thomas Howard, Duke of (1473 1554), a nobleman of great authority in the reign of Henry VIII, became Earl of Surrey in 1513, in which year he fought at the battle of Flodden Field. In 1524 his father died, and he succeeded to the Dukedom of Norfolk. He was the leader of the old Catholic party, and the opponent of Wolsey and Thomas Cromwell. It was by his influence that the Statute of the Six Articles was passed in 1539. In 1546 he was accused with his son, the Earl of Surrey, of high treason, and only the king's death prevented his execution. Two of Norfolk's nieces (Anne Boleyn and Katharine Howard) were queens of Henry VIII.

Northumberland John Dudley, Duke of (1502 1553), was son of the extortioner Dudley. In 1545 he was made Lord High Admiral, and in 1547 received the title of Earl of Warwick. He did not become Duke of Northumberland until four years later. In 1549 he succeeded Somerset as Protector of the kingdom, Edward VI being still under age. On Edward's death he attempted to place his own daughter in law, Lady Jane Grey, on the throne, but the cause of Mary triumphed, and Northumberland was beheaded as a traitor.

Northumberland, Henry Percy, Earl of, was appointed Marshal of England by Edward III. In the reign of Richard II he joined the party of Henry of Lancaster, and when Henry became king, Percy was rewarded with the gift of the Isle of Man. In company with his son Hotspur, he defeated the Scots at Homildon Hill in 1402. He also took part with Hotspur in the rebellion which led to the latter's death. He himself rebelled again in 1408 and was killed at Bramham Moor.

Oates, Titus (1619 1705), pretended to have discovered a great Popish Plot to overturn the Protestant religion in England. Through his false accusations many innocent and upright men were put to death. In the reign of James II he was publicly whipped and sentenced to imprisonment for life, but after the Revolution he was released and pensioned.

O Connell, Daniel (1775 1847), a great Irish orator, opposed the Union of Ireland with Great Britain, and became the champion of the Catholic party. It was largely through his efforts that the Catholic Relief Bill of 1829 was passed and he was known as the "Liberator". In 1841 he began to agitate for the repeal of the Union, but, being charged with holding illegal and seditious meetings, he was sentenced to be imprisoned and heavily fined. This decision, although it was overturned by the House of Lords, practically put an end to O Connell's career and to the cause he represented.

Orford, Edward Russell, Earl of (1651 1727), naval commander and politician, was one of those who invited William of Orange to England. After the Revolution, becoming discontented, he corresponded with James, and in 1692 it was feared that the fleet under his command would refuse to fight the French. His loyalty was, however, roused by a timely letter from the Queen, and he gained the brilliant victory of La Hogue. He held three times the office of First Lord of the Admiralty.

Orford, Robert Walpole, Earl of (1676 1745). Sir Robert Walpole, an able financier and statesman, was appointed War Secretary in 1708. His political opponents accused him of appropriating the funds of this office to his own use, but his trial completely proved his innocence. For a short time he was Premier and Chancellor of the Exchequer, but in 1717 he resigned. Three years later he returned to office as Paymaster of the Forces, and in 1721, on the bursting of the South Sea Bubble, he resumed the Premiership. His firm and skilful measures restored the confidence of the nation. He held office till 1742, when he resigned and was created Earl of Orford.

Overbury Sir Thomas (1581 1613), was a traveller and literary man. He had become intimate with Robert Carr (afterwards Earl of Somerset) the favourite of James I. When Carr, who was at that time Earl of Rochester, desired to marry the Countess of Essex, Overbury interfered, whereupon Rochester and the Countess had him committed to the Tower and there poisoned.

Oxford, Robert Harley Earl of (1661 1724), was Speaker of the House of Commons in 1702, and Chancellor of the Exchequer in 1710. In 1711 he became Lord High Treasurer and received his earldom. In 1715 he was impeached of high treason, but after two years imprisonment in the Tower he was acquitted.

Peel, Sir Robert (1788 1850), the son of a cotton spinner, began life as a strong Conservative, and ended by repealing the Corn Laws. Previous to 1829 he had held the office of Chief Secretary for Ireland, and that of Home Secretary, and had passed many useful measures. In that year he carried the Catholic Relief Bill. Two or three times during the years that followed he was Prime Minister for brief periods, and in 1846 he accomplished in the Repeal of the Corn Laws the crowning work of his life.

Pembroke William the Marshal, Earl of, obtained the title by marriage with Strongbow's daughter. He was a judge under Richard I, and a firm friend of King John. When John died, Pembroke acted as regent during the minority of Henry III, and, on the young king's behalf, confirmed Magna Charta. In 1217 he destroyed the French fleet which invaded England in support of the claims of Prince Louis, and defeated the Count de Perche at the Fair of Lincoln. He died in 1219.

Pembroke, William Herbert, Earl of (1507-70) lived in the reigns of Edward VI, Mary, and Elizabeth. On Edward's death he supported the claims of Lady Jane Grey, but was pardoned by Mary and became her faithful servant. He assisted in crushing Sir Thomas Wyatt's rebellion in 1555. He enjoyed high favour with Queen Elizabeth until his share in a plot against Burleigh, and another in favour of Mary Stuart led to his banishment from court. He died in 1570.

Pembroke, Thomas Herbert, Earl of (1656-1733), helped to bring about the Revolution of 1688. Under William and Mary he was Chief Commissioner of the Admiralty, and afterwards Lord Privy Seal. In 1700 he became President of the Council. He concluded the Treaty of Ryswick, and conducted negotiations for the Union with Scotland. In 1707 he was Lord Lieutenant of Ireland. He twice held the office of Lord High Admiral.

Perceval, Spencer (1762-1812), a supporter of the younger Pitt, became Attorney General in 1802. During the administration of Fox he was in opposition, but on the death of Fox, in 1807, he was made Chancellor of the Exchequer. Two years later he was First Lord of the Treasury. In 1812 a man named Bellingham shot him in the lobby of the House of Commons.

Percy Henry (1366-1403), son of the Earl of Northumberland, on account of his rash daring was surnamed "Hotspur." At the battle of Chevy Chase (Otterburn) he slew the Douglas and in conjunction with his father he defeated the Scots at Homildon Hill in 1402. The rewards which he received from Henry IV failed to satisfy him, and the year after Homildon Hill he allied himself with the Scots and was slain at the Battle of Shrewsbury. (The words *Chevy Chase* are a corruption of the French *Chevauchée*, an expedition on horseback.)

Percy, Henry, Earl of Northumberland. *Vide* Northumberland.

Philip II (1527-1598) was the son of the Emperor Charles V. He married Mary I of England in 1554, much against the will of her subjects. In 1556 he became King of Spain, and his reign was distinguished, like that of his English wife, by pitiless persecution of the Protestants. He dragged England into that war with France which resulted in the loss of Calais. After Mary's death he aspired to marry Elizabeth, and her refusal was one of the causes that led him in 1588 to sit out the Armada for the conquest of England.

Pitt, William (1759-1806) The younger Pitt is to be ranked with his father among the greatest British statesmen. At the age of twenty-three he became Chancellor of the Exchequer, and a year later Prime Minister. He passed an India Bill and a measure for the reduction of the National Debt. On the outbreak of the French Revolution he joined the rest of Europe in opposing it. In 1801 he found the feeling of the country unfavourable to his policy, and after bringing about the Union with Ireland he was forced to resign. The schemes of Napoleon, which threatened to overwhelm all Europe, created so much alarm in England that Pitt was recalled to office in 1804 as the only man fit to cope with them. He succeeded in making an alliance with Russia and Austria against Napoleon. His health was by this time falling, and the news of the battle of Austerlitz, in 1805, was the finishing stroke. He died in the following year.

Pitt, William (the elder) *Vide* Chatham.

Portland William Bentinck Earl of (1648 1709), was a statesman of William III's reign, and a great favourite with the king. He was employed in the preparations for William's invasion of England in 1688 and at the battle of the Boyne he held a command. In 1697 he negotiated the treaty of Ryswick, and in the following year he was sent as ambassador to Paris. The part he took in the First and Second Partition Treaties led to his impeachment, but the trial was not proceeded with, and Portland retired into private life.

Poynings Sir Edward, is chiefly notable for the law which bore his name. In 1494, Henry VII sent him as Lord Deputy to Ireland, where he stamped out what was left of Perkin Warbeck's rebellion and passed his famous Act. By this it was ordained that all English laws should hold good in Ireland, and that no Irish Parliament should meet without the consent of the king of England.

Pym John (1584 1643), was the foremost man in the Parliamentary party in the reign of Charles I. He was a Somersetshire squire, was educated at Pembroke College, Oxford, and entered Parliament as M.P. for Tavistock, in Devonshire. In 1626 he took a prominent part in the impeachment of Buckingham. In 1641, he was the leader in the impeachment and attainder of Strafford. His friends spoke of him as "King Pym." He was also one of the five members whom Charles I. tried to arrest. He died at Derby House, in London, soon after the first battle of Newbury.

Raleigh, Sir Walter (1552 1618), was sent to Ireland in 1580, and assisted in putting down the rebellion. Sailing to America, he founded the colony of Virginia. In 1588 he took part in the defeat of the Armada, and eight years later in the Cadiz expedition. When James ascended the throne Raleigh fell into disfavour. A charge of treason was trumped up against him, and he was confined twelve years in the Tower, where he wrote a "History of the World." In 1615, having promised to obtain great treasure from South America, he was released, but the expedition proved a failure. On his return he was put to death on the original charge of treason.

Richelieu, Cardinal (1585 1642) a great French statesman, became First Minister of Louis XIII in 1624. "His history for the rest of his life is the history of France." He made the power of the king absolute, but he himself was the real king. In 1628 he took La Rochelle, the stronghold of the French Protestants, in spite of the attempts of the English to relieve it. His foreign and his home policy were alike conspicuously successful, and he encouraged art and literature.

Ridley, Nicholas (1500 1555), the fellow martyr of Latimer, was appointed to the see of Rochester in 1547, and in 1550 to that of London, from which Bonner had been deposed. He supported the claim of Lady Jane Grey, and was in consequence imprisoned. The prominent part he had taken in defying papal authority caused him to be burned at the stake.

Roche Peter des, a favourite of King John, was made Bishop of Winchester, and in 1219 succeeded the Earl of Pembroke as the guardian of Henry III. His foreign birth made him very unpopular with the English nobility, and he was twice obliged to leave the kingdom. In 1231 he returned and was welcomed by the king, his rival Hubert de Burgh, was disgraced, and all his enemies dismissed from office. His own downfall took place three years later. He died in 1258.

Fooke, Sir George (1650 1709), fought in the naval engagements of Beachy Head and La Hogue. In 1702 he sunk the Spanish treasure fleet in Vigo Bay, but the feat with which his name is chiefly associated is the taking of Gibraltar in 1704.

Rupert, Prince (1619 1682), was the nephew of Charles I, and in the Civil War commanded the Royalist cavalry. His qualities were rather those of a brilliant soldier than of a great general. He lost the battle of Marston Moor in 1644, and in 1645 was dismissed by Charles for surrendering Bristol. Being made commander of the fleet, he was defeated by Blake in 1651. After the Restoration he was associated with Monck in his great naval victories over the Dutch.

Russell, Edward. *Vide* Orford.

Russell John (1792 1878), Earl Russell, was born in Hertford Street, Mayfair, London. He was the third son of the then Duke of Bedford, and was commonly called Lord John Russell. He was educated at Westminster School, and at the University of Edinburgh. In 1813 he entered Parliament as M.P. for Tavistock—the family borough, at the age of twenty-one. He moved the first reading of the Reform Bill in 1831. He filled many Cabinet offices, and in 1846 became Prime Minister. In 1861 he was called to the Upper House as Earl Russell. In 1865, on the death of Lord Palmerston, he again became Prime Minister. He died at Pembroke Lodge, Richmond Park, at the age of eighty-five.

Russell William, Lord (1639 1683), a statesman of the time of Charles II, resisted the claims of the Duke of York (afterwards James II) to the succession, and endeavoured to pass the Exclusion Bill. In 1683 he was accused (probably without foundation) of being concerned in the Rye House Plot, was found guilty of high treason, and executed.

Sacheverell, Henry (1622 1724), was a clergyman of strong High Church and Tory principles in the reign of Anne. He published a sermon violently attacking the Dissenters and the Whigs, for which the Whig ministry caused him to be impeached. His sermon was ordered to be burnt by the common hangman, and he himself forbidden to preach for three years. But the chief effect of the sentence was to win him favour with the populace and promotion from the Queen.

St John, Henry. *Vide* Bolingbroke.

Sidney, Algernon (1620 1683), was a member of the Court which tried Charles I, though his name does not appear on the King's death warrant. After the Restoration he lived abroad for some years until he received a pardon. In 1683 he was charged with being an accomplice in the Rye House Plot, and, along with Lord William Russell, was condemned and executed, on the scantiest and most doubtful evidence. He was a Republican, and wrote a series of "Discourses on Government."

Sidney Sir Philip (1554 1586), soldier, statesman, author, and chivalrous English gentleman, is one of the brightest ornaments of the Elizabethan age. In 1576 he was sent as an ambassador to Austria, and concluded a Protestant Alliance in opposition to Philip II of Spain. In 1585 he might have been made King of Poland, but Elizabeth, unwilling to lose him, interfered and appointed him Governor of Flushing. He was killed at the battle of Zutphen. His principal work is the "Arcadia."

Smith, Sir Sydney (1765-1841), entered the navy before he was twelve years old. In the wars against Napoleon Buonaparte he took an active share, his principal achievement being the defence, in 1798, of Acre in Syria. In 1821 he was made an Admiral.

Strafford Thomas Wentworth, Earl of (1593-1641), in the earlier part of his career opposed the arbitrary claims of the Stuarts but in 1628 he went over to the Royalist party and became the most uncompromising servant of Charles I. In 1633 he was made Lord Deputy, and in 1639 Lord Lieutenant in Ireland, where his famous "thorough" policy won him much hatred. In England, too, his tyrannical conduct as President of the Council of the North, and his furtherance of the king's attempts to override the constitution, made the nation anxious for his downfall. In 1640 he was impeached of high treason, and, despite the endeavour of Charles to save him, was beheaded in the following year.

Stuart, Lady Arabella (1577-1615), was niece to Lord Darnley, and first cousin to James I. She was also a direct descendant of Henry VII, and, early in the reign of James, the Main Plot was formed to place her on the throne. When, in 1610, she married Sir William Seymour, who had also some claim to the crown, she was considered so dangerous to the king's safety that she was imprisoned in the Tower, where she died.

Surrey, Henry Howard, Earl of (1516-1547), soldier and poet, was a son of the Duke of Norfolk, under whom he saw service in Scotland and in France. Being a descendant of Edward the Confessor, he unwisely assumed his arms and was suspected of aiming at the crown. He was accused of high treason and executed.

Surrey, Thomas Howard, Earl of. *Vide* Norfolk.

Tyndale William (1484-1536), who was the first to translate the Scriptures into English from the original Greek and Hebrew, was in early life a private tutor. In 1524 he left England and went to live on the Continent, where his New Testament Pentateuch, etc., were printed, and whence from 1526 onward they were smuggled into England. He was betrayed at Antwerp into the hands of his enemies, and, after sixteen months imprisonment in the Castle of Vilvorde, he was there burned as a heretic in October 1536.

Villiers George. *Vide* Buckingham.

Walpole Sir Robert. *Vide* Orford.

Walsingham Sir Francis (1536-1590), was sent by Burleigh as Ambassador to France in 1570, and in 1573 was appointed a Secretary of State. He maintained a very complete secret service, by means of which he was able to discover and crush several important conspiracies—notably that of Babington. He was instrumental in the death of Mary Queen of Scots. His character appears to have been a mixture of honesty and cunning, both which qualities made him a useful servant of Elizabeth.

Warwick Edward Plantagenet, Earl of, was son of the Duke of Clarence and nephew of Edward IV. On the accession of Henry VII, Warwick, as the Yorkist heir to the throne, was imprisoned in the Tower. In 1499 it was pretended that he had entered into a conspiracy with Perkin Warbeck, his fellow prisoner, and on this pretext he was beheaded.

Warwick, Guy, Earl of, whom Gaveston, the favourite of Edward II, had nicknamed the "Black Dog of Arden," seized Gaveston in 1312 and beheaded him. Warwick died in 1315.

Warwick, Thomas Beauchamp, Earl of, was governor or tutor to Richard II. In 1397, along with the Duke of Gloucester, the king's uncle, he was accused of treason and was banished. He died in 1401.

Warwick, Richard Beauchamp, Earl of (1381-1439), took part, with Henry IV, in the defeat of Hotspur at Shrewsbury in 1403. He was tutor of Henry VI from 1428 till 1437, when he was appointed Regent of France. This office he held until his death. He was father-in-law of the "King-maker."

Warwick, Richard Neville, Earl of (1428-1471), is known in English history as the "King-maker." In the Wars of the Roses he fought at first for Edward, Duke of York, won for him the battle of St. Albans in 1455, and in 1460 took Henry VI prisoner at Northampton, next year proclaiming Edward IV king. About 1464 he became dissatisfied with the appointment he had made, and retired to France. In 1470 he invaded England, compelled Edward to fly the country, and restored Henry VI. Edward returned in the following year and met Warwick at the battle of Barnet, where the "King-maker" was defeated and slain.

Warwick, John Dudley, Earl of. *Vide* Northumberland.

Washington, George (1732-1799), the great commander of the American colonists in the War of Independence, and first President of the United States, was born in Virginia. In early life he fought under Braddock against the French in Canada. On the outbreak of war with the mother country, the colonists made him their Commander in Chief, and in 1776 he compelled the English to evacuate Boston. During the next few years he was several times defeated, but in 1781 Lord Cornwallis surrendered to him at Yorktown. Two years later peace was made. Washington twice filled the office of President, and his noble character, no less than his gifts as a commander and an administrator, made him the idol of the new nation.

Wellington, Arthur Wellesley, Duke of (1769-1852), was born in the same year as his great rival Napoleon. He served for some time in India, where in 1803 he won the battle of Assaye against the Marhattas. But it was the Peninsular War which revealed him as the "foremost captain of his time, if not of all time." His splendid victories—Roliça and Vimiera, 1808; the Douro and Talavera, 1809; Busaco, 1810; Fuentes d'Onoro, 1811; Ciudad Rodrigo, Badajoz, and Salamanca, 1812; Vittoria, 1813; Orthez and Toulouse, 1814—cannot be paralleled in the history of any other commander, while his consummate skill and patience were displayed in his ten weeks' defence of the lines of Torres Vedras in 1810. In 1815, by the crowning victory of Waterloo, the ambitious hopes of Napoleon were annihilated and the peace of Europe secured. The "Great Duke" was also a considerable force as a statesman.

Wentworth, Thomas. *Vide* Strafford.

Wolfe, James (1727-1759), was sent out to Canada under General Amherst during the war with the French. In 1759 he attacked the fortress of Quebec, scaled the

Heights of Abraham, which were believed to be inaccessible, and took the city. He received his death wound in the engagement, living only long enough to learn that the victory was won.

Wolsey, Thomas, Cardinal (1471-1530), churchman and statesman, was sent by Henry VII as Ambassador to Germany. Under Henry VIII, he was appointed Bishop of Lincoln, Bishop of Bath and Wells, Bishop of Durham, Bishop of Winchester, and finally Archbishop of York. He was high in favour with the king, who made him his Chancellor. He lived with the magnificence of a royal prince. But his ambition and arrogance made him many foes at Court, while his conduct in the matter of Henry's divorce lost him the favour of the king. He was deprived of all his offices, and summoned to London to answer a charge of high treason. He died on the journey.

Wyatt, Sir Thomas (1520-1554), was the son of Sir Thomas Wyatt, the poet. In 1554, indignant at the marriage of Queen Mary with Philip II of Spain, he raised a rebellion in Kent, took Rochester Castle, and marched on London. Here he was defeated and taken prisoner. He was executed for high treason.

Wycliffe, John (1324-1384), the originator of the Reformation in England, was appointed in 1374 Rector of Lutterworth. In 1377 the Bishop of London ordered him to appear and answer a charge of heresy, and next year he was called on a similar charge before the Archbishop of Canterbury. No very serious consequences resulted from these summonses, and in 1380 Wycliffe's translation of the Bible from the Latin Vulgate, the first complete English version, appeared. His attacks upon the Pope and upon the doctrine of transubstantiation led to a proclamation of his writings as dangerous and heretical. Urban VI commanded his attendance at Rome, but Wycliffe died before he could set out.

TERMS EMPLOYED IN ENGLISH HISTORY

Aids—A feudal tax levied by the king on special occasions. Henry I, c. 1100, levied on the marriage of his daughter an aid consisting of three shillings on each hide or allotment of land.

Alod.—This was the name given to a hereditary estate, the right to which was derived from primitive or original occupation. Thus, Robinson Crusoe's island was the "Alod" of Robinson Crusoe, or (2) it might be a private estate, created out of the public land by legal process, the possession of which was confirmed by a charter.

Angevin—A native of, or belonging to, Anjou.

Annates—When a bishop or archbishop was presented to a see, it was customary for him to pay his first year's income to the Pope. This was known as the exaction of "annates" or "first fruits." The practice was begun about the time of Henry III., and was abolished by statute of Henry VIII. in the year 1532.

Assize of Arms—A revival in 1181 of the old *fyrð* (*q. v.*) or national militia. All men, citizens, burgesses, free tenants, villeins, and others, were bound by the Assize of Arms to provide themselves with arms proper to their class, and to place themselves, when required, at the service of the local authorities.

Atheling See *Etheling*.

Attainder, Bills of, like other Parliamentary bills, might be introduced in either of the Houses of Parliament. After being passed both by the Lords and the Commons, they had to receive the royal sanction before they could take

effect. Their purpose was to "attain" of high treason political offenders, who might or might not be heard in their own defence. See *Impeachment*.

Sir John Fenwick (1697) was the last person condemned by Bill of Attainder. This procedure had to be resorted to as his wife had conveyed out of the country one of the witnesses against him. A charge of high treason cannot be proved without two witnesses at least.

Bail—A sum of money lodged in Court as a pledge that an accused person will appear in Court on the day appointed for his trial. If he does not appear, he is said to break his bail, and the money deposited is confiscated by the Court.

Banneret—A superior degree of knighthood. This rank might be, and was, conferred on peers, but did not entitle the holder to sit in the House of Lords.

Baronet is a title first conferred by James I., who made it a mere matter of sale and purchase. Any one who paid into the Treasury a sum sufficient to support for three years one hundred soldiers of the army in Ulster was created a baronet. The title is hereditary, but does not confer upon its possessor any special privileges. It need hardly be said that baronetcies are no longer offered for sale.

Benefit of Clergy—Persons in holy orders enjoyed the privilege of being tried by ecclesiastical instead of by secular courts. The privilege was greatly abused, being claimed at length by all who could read a verse of the Psalms "like a clerk." It was found, moreover, that ecclesiastical courts were far too lenient in dealing with ecclesiastical offenders. Henry VII. and Henry VIII. greatly limited the

privilege, it was finally abolished under George IV

Benevolences, or forced loans, were employed by many of the kings of England as a means of raising money without the necessity of an appeal to Parliament. They were nominally requests, but really commands, to the king's subjects to contribute to the royal needs. They were declared illegal by Richard III's Parliament, but they continued to be extorted as late as the reign of James I

Billeting of soldiers and sailors upon civilians was one of the grievances complained of in the Petition of Right. An Act of Charles II in 1681 provided that no person should be compelled to receive soldiers or sailors into his house against his will, but this law, so far as it concerns innkeepers is annually suspended by the Mutiny Act

Bills are legislative proposals introduced in either of the Houses of Parliament. They do not become law until they have been passed by both houses and have received the royal assent. After they have been so sanctioned they become Acts of Parliament or Statutes. They have to pass three "Readings" in each House. If the Bill passes, the Clerk of the House of Lords says, in Norman French "La Reyne le veult"

Black Mail was levied by Border and Highland marauders from their more peaceable neighbours. A farmer, on payment of black mail to a plundering chieftain, received a guarantee that his cattle should not be carried off nor his house pillaged

Bookland—Originally spelt *boocland*. Land of which the possession was confirmed by charter or legal documents. Bookland was private estate, created out of public land. See *Alod* (2)

Boycotting is the modern Irish method of "sending to Coventry" an unpopular landlord, his agent, any of his tenants who pay him rent, or any person who may

occupy one of his farms from which the previous tenant has been evicted. The first landlord to be treated in this way was a Captain Boycott, in 1880

Bulls are official letters or proclamations from the Pope. The word is derived from the leaden seal (*bulla*) attached to the parchment on which the letter is written

Cabinet is a select committee or council of Ministers and Secretaries of State, chosen by the Premier (It was at first a kind of Committee of the Privy Council). Although technically unknown to the Constitution, the Cabinet controls the entire Government, with the powers formerly exercised by the Crown. Its importance began after the Revolution. The number of members varies from twelve to fifteen, and the meetings are secret

Canon Law—Canon Law is distinguished from common law in that it professed to deal with spiritual questions only, and with all matters that related to the clergy and religion. It did not, however, confine itself to these matters, but had, for instance, almost entire control over marriage and will cases. The ultimate effect was that the clergy were set above the ordinary law, and gave obedience to none but the Canon Law

Carucage—A tax of from two to five shillings on each *carucate* or hundred acres of land

Castellan—The constable of a castle

Cavalier was a name given to the supporters of Charles I in his struggle with the Long Parliament. After the Restoration the Cavaliers became the "Church and King Party," or Tory Party. "The Courtiers having long hair and locks, and always wearing swords, at last were called Cavaliers"

Census—All the inhabitants of the country are numbered every tenth year by a Census. The first Census was held in 1801. The last was in 1881. The first "Imperial Census" of the British Empire was taken in 1871, when the population was found to be about 235,000,000

Ceorl (or *churl*, as it has now become) was a freeman with all legal rights, who was entitled to be the possessor of one hide (about 30 acres) of land. A *ceorl* was the lowest degree in the rank of freemen. (It is the Scotch word *Carl*, German, *Karl*, English, *Charles*.)

Champion of England is an officer who appears at the coronation of each sovereign, and challenges to combat any who dispute his right to the throne. Needless to say, the challenge is never responded to. From Richard II to Victoria the office has been hereditary in the Dymoke family.

Chancery—The Court of Chancery is the highest court of judicature in England. Its head is the Lord High Chancellor, who was always an ecclesiastic until Sir Thomas More was appointed. He was "the Keeper of the King's conscience." The Chancellors have since been laymen. At one time the Court of Chancery had most extensive powers, and came frequently in conflict with the House of Commons. Its power was gradually reduced, and it was remodelled under Victoria.

Chapter—A cathedral chapter is the whole body of clergy connected with a cathedral. At the head of the chapter stands the Dean.

Cinque Ports were five Ports on the south east coast—Hastings, Dover, Romney, Hythe, and Sandwich. Winchelsea and Rye were afterwards added. They were allowed to have a parliament, courts, and laws of their own, and to be exempt from taxation. In return they were bound to furnish the king with a fleet.

Clergy is a general name applied to all ministers of religion. In the Middle Ages they were divided into "regular clergy," who lived together in some monastic order, and "secular clergy," who attended to the wants of the common people.

Client—A man who was included in the following of, or depended for protection on, some lord, who had to be responsible for the appear-

ance of the client in court. Imprisonment in the modern sense was unknown among the Old English communities.

Common Lands are unenclosed lands belonging to no owner, but open to the people generally for pasturage and other uses. They are a survival of the old *folklond*, which belonged to all, but most of them have been enclosed by neighbouring landlords. The Commons Act of 1876 has put a stop to this.

The rights to these lands included *pasturage* *turbary* (cutting turf for fuel) and *estovers* (the liberty of taking wood for fuel or for making furniture).

Commonwealth (= Common weal th), the general good or interest of a nation. This title was given to the form of republic set up in England after the execution of Charles I in 1649, and before the establishment of Cromwell's Protectorate in 1653.

Communa—The *communa* was a collective term for the fully qualified members of a township, to whom a town charter had been granted. Such would be the owners of land, houses, and shops, who had all a share in the internal government of their city, and reserved to themselves the privileges of trade and manufacture in their own district.

Congé d'élire—When a See fell vacant, the Chapter of the Cathedral elected a new bishop, but before doing so they had to obtain the king's permission by *Congé d'élire* or leave to elect. In 1534 an Act of Henry VIII gave power to the king to send, along with the *Congé d'élire*, the name of the man he desired to see elected.

Consols is a shortened term for the Consolidated Government Stock. Different government stocks used to bear different rates of interest, but it was found convenient to equalise them. See National Debt.

Constable—See Marshal. The duties of a constable were substantially the same as those of a marshal.

Consuls are British officials placed in sea ports and other important towns in foreign countries. Their duty is to protect the interests of British subjects who may be staying or trading there. They attend principally to commerce, and report to the Foreign Office on the prices of living in the countries they are placed in, but they have no diplomatic duties.

Convocation was the name given to the general assembly of the clergy, which consisted of the archbishop, the bishops, and representatives of the clergy from each diocese, called proctors. There were two convocations, one of Canterbury and the other of York.

Coracle—A primitive (British) boat made of hides stretched on a frame of wickerwork.

Council, Privy—Composed of the officers of the Royal household, the judges, some of the bishops and barons, and other members, clerical and lay. It was the special instrument of the kingly power, and acted side by side with, and often in opposition to, the National or Royal Council. Powers

- (a) It acted as a standing council of advice to the king,
- (b) It received petitions and remitted the petitioners to the proper courts,
- (c) Its ordinances had temporarily the force of laws,
- (d) It possessed a large civil and criminal jurisdiction.

Council, Royal—The successor to the old Witenagemot. It was composed of bishops, abbots, earls, barons, and knights, who were there nominally to advise and deliberate with the king, and vote on measures proposed, and nominally also the king had to get their consent before making any move. Actually it was only the most distinguished of the Council whom the king consulted with, if he chose to consult at all. Sometimes other men—strangers of special skill or knowledge—were admitted, and on some occasions the Council consisted of a general muster of the landowners of the kingdom.

County Court—"In the County Courts and under the guidance of the Sheriff, was transacted all the business of the Shire" (Stubbs)—matters judicial, military, and fiscal, and generally those that related to the working of the county. In the County Court, too, the election of Knights of the Shire was vested.

Court Baron "was the ancient gemot of the township, in which by-laws were made, and other local business transacted" (Stubbs). This court probably answered to the Justices of the Peace Court of the present day, which tries petty crimes, and disposes of other small local matters.

Court Leet—A local court dealing with matters of petty criminal jurisdiction, and especially concerned with the maintenance of the *frank pledge* or *frithborh*—a surety entered into by ten men, or a "tithing," to produce, or be responsible for any of their number in a Court of Law, if required. "An association of ten in common responsibility" (Stubbs).

Court of the North—This court was established by Elizabeth for the government of the northern counties. It met at York. When Strafford became President of the Court of the North its powers were used in an arbitrary way to support the authority of Charles I. In consequence it was abolished by the Long Parliament.

Covenant was originally an agreement for mutual support ("a bond to stand by one another to the death") among the Scottish Protestants against the Roman Catholic Church. The *First Covenant*—signed by James VI—was framed in 1581. In 1638 when the Scottish Presbyterians rebelled against Charles I they signed the *National Covenant*. An alliance in 1643 between the Scots and the English Parliamentary Party was called the *Solemn League and Covenant*. After the Restoration, all Covenants were declared unlawful.

Covenanters were the popular Presbyterian party in Scotland, who carried on the civil war against Charles I. They were severely persecuted under Charles II.

Coyne and Livery was an ancient custom or privilege by which the Irish Chiefs quartered troops on their tenants. It was finally abolished in 1603.

Crenelated—"Furnished with loopholes, through which missiles might be shot." (Connected with the word *Cranny*.)

Crown Colonies—Colonies under the sole administration of the government at home are called Crown Colonies. They have no representative institutions. They are generally countries that have been annexed by force of arms—not colonised at first by British settlers. Ceylon is a Crown Colony.

Crown Lands are lands belonging not to private owners, but to the King as Sovereign of the country. The Folkland became, in William I's time, the *Terra Regis*. They are now administered by public departments, and cannot be sold or alienated in any way.

Curia Regis was in a measure a committee of the Royal Council. It was presided over on important occasions by the king, and in his absence by the chief justiciar. The court was composed of the great officers of the household. The same body also had control of the assessment and collection of the revenue. Functions: (1) A Supreme Court of Appeal for persons not satisfied with the decisions of lower courts, (2) "A tribunal of primary resort" (Stubbs) for powerful barons who would not submit to lower jurisdiction, (3) It also exercised control over the whole jurisdiction of the country, by sending out Judges to sit in the different local courts.

Customs are taxes or "duties" levied on merchandise entering or leaving the country, though they are most usually laid on imports.

They are intended to produce public revenue. When foreign goods are re-exported, the import duty paid on them is returned, by the "system of drawbacks". The goods on which import duty is due are stored in "bonded warehouses", and the merchant can pay it when most convenient to himself.

Custos Rotulorum (=keeper of the Rotuli, or Little Rolls or Lists) an official who takes charge of the rolls or records for the sessions of a county. The office is generally combined with that of Lord Lieutenant.

Danegeld.—Extraordinary taxation imposed by the Saxon kings, originally for making war against the Danes or to buy off their hostility. William the Conqueror made it a permanent source of revenue, though the necessity for exacting it was no longer present. In 1163 this tax disappears, but presents itself under Richard I as *carucage*. See *Carucage*.

Dane Law—Under the Anglo-Saxon kings the kingdom was divided into three districts, the West Saxon, Mercian, and Danish Law. In the Dane Law or *Danelaga* the Danes possessed a recognised right to enjoy their own laws and customs. This threefold division disappears after the reign of Stephen.

Defender of the Faith.—When Henry VIII was still on good terms with the Pope he published a book (*The Defence of the Seven Sacraments*) against the doctrines of Luther. The Pope was so pleased with it that he conferred on Henry the title of "Defender of the Faith". The title has been used ever since by the sovereigns of England.

Demesne—Demesne land was the direct property of the king, either farmed out by the Sheriffs of the Counties as stewards, or managed immediately by the Crown.

Diocese—The district under control of a bishop, as its spiritual

head. The diocese was subdivided into archdeaconries, deaneries, and parishes

Dispensing Power—This was a power formerly claimed by the king, of exempting people from the operation of a penal law. It was used by James II to admit Catholics to offices from which they were legally excluded. After the Revolution the Dispensing Power was abolished. (Not to be confused with the "Suspended Power," which was a right claimed to suspend the operation of a statute. The Bill of Rights abolished both powers.)

Divine Right was a theory that the king derived his authority, not from the people, but directly from God, to whom alone he was responsible. To resist the king was therefore declared an act of impiety. The complement of the theory was *Passive Obedience*. This theory was taught by many members of the Church of England, under the Stuarts.

Duke—The highest rank of nobility after the Prince. It was a dignity borrowed from the usage of foreign countries. The first Dukedom, that of Cornwall, was founded by Edward III in 1337, to be the perpetual rank of the king's eldest son and heir apparent.

Ealdorman—The highest rank a vassal could hold under the Anglo-Saxon kings. The Ealdorman had civil jurisdiction over a shire or a cluster of shires, amounting to a small kingdom, and therein was the viceroy of the king. He was nominally elected by the King and Witenagemot, but actually the office was hereditary. Ealdorman means the elder man, or man in authority, and corresponds in meaning to the Roman *Senator*. The Ealdorman was entitled to hold forty hides of land.

Earl—The Earldom (Danish *jarl*) "had begun to supplant the title of Ealdorman in the reign of Ethelred," but retained many of the features of the older office. Military duty was imposed on the Earls by the Norman kings in addition to

their judicial functions. The Earl of Chester, e.g., under William the Conqueror, had to keep the Welsh Marches. Generally the Earl had complete superiority, both as to the administration of justice, appointment of Sheriffs, and the system of feudal tenure, in the county or counties over which he was set.

Election of Bishops

- (1) In the earlier times—under the Confessor—the king either directly appointed a bishop or else nominated him in the Witenagemot, and then consulted the clergy and leading men of the diocese, as to their wishes or opinion of the nominee.
- (2) The Pope appointed directly, without consulting the chapter.
- (3) The king sent his licence to the chapter to elect, and nominated a candidate, subject to the approval of the Pope.
- (4) The king nominated, and the chapter elected. The chapter, if displeased with the king's nominee, could appeal to the Pope. This was the ultimate stage and in time the Pope's authority was dispensed with altogether.

Election of Knights of the Shire

—By the Magna Charta it was enacted that twelve sworn Knights in each county should be chosen to carry out the provisions of the Charter. These were elected either by the County Court or by such persons, being freemen of the County, as the Sheriff should summon for election purposes, the candidates having been previously nominated by the Sheriff. See *Freeholder*.

Election of Sheriffs

—Sheriffs (1) were either elected by the officers of Exchequer, or (2) could be elected by the County.

Englishry, Presentment of

—The English often requited their Norman conquerors by secret murder. Against this, William the Conqueror enacted that every man found dead should be pre-

sumed a Norman; and that the hundred, within which the dead man was found, should be heavily fined, unless proofs of "Englishry" (i.e. of English birth) were advanced by the four nearest relations of the deceased

Escheat—An estate was said to be escheated to the Crown, when the Crown took possession either on the death of the owner without heirs, or on its forfeiture for some offence committed by the owner. If retained by the Crown and not granted to another owner, it was farmed out and known as an Honour

Estates of the Realm were the bodies of men in the State who possessed political power. There were three Estates: the Nobles, the Clergy, and the Commons. The modern Parliamentary form is that of Lords Spiritual, Lords Temporal, and Commons. The Commons is generally called "The Third Estate", and, by a humorous convention, the Newspaper Press has the name of "The Fourth Estate"

Etheling—The Ethelings or Athelings were the sons and brothers of the king. They ranked above the rest of the nobility, and their *wer-gild* was half of what was payable for the king. The word is cognate with the German *Adel*, noble

Exchequer—The Court of Exchequer was established after the Norman Conquest, to manage the finances of the country. It was at first the financial committee of the Great Council. The members sat around a table covered with a chequered cloth ("chequers" are little squares—like those on a chess board) used in counting money. The Chancellor of the Exchequer is now a member of the Cabinet

Feudal Tenure—"The king was the original lord, and every title [to land] issued mediately or immediately from him"—(Stubbs). The vassal held land from his lord, and in return had to render military service and all other obedience. Through the medium of land tenure the whole fabric of feudal society

was "bound together by obligation of service and defence"—(Stubbs)

Fifteenth was a tax of a fifteenth on the value of all moveables

First Fruits See *Annates*

Folkland—The land of the folk or the common land belonging to the people and owned by no particular individual. It might be leased out in private estates, which paid rent to the State, and on the death of the lessee it reverted to the State. In earlier times even the king could not appropriate any part of it without consent from the Witenagemot, subsequently it became royal demesne. See *Demesne*

Folkmoot—The moot or meeting of the folk of the shire. It was the local parliament of the shire, in which the people met to discuss the administration and business of the shire

Forfeiture—When any one was convicted of treason his lands were "forfeited," or taken from him into the possession of the king. Forfeiture lasted from the time of Alfred until it was abolished in 1870

Foss—The ditch or moat that usually ran round the Norman castles for defensive purposes (Lat *fossa*, a ditch)

Frank pledge See *Court Leet*

Freeholder—A man who held his land absolutely as his own, and did not pay rent for it to another. These were the men who served on juries, elected the Knights of the Shire, and assembled with the proper equipment of arms in the shire's muster of forces

Frith-borh See *Court Leet*

Frith-gild was in part what is known as a benevolent society in our time

Its chief functions were

(a) To bestow alms

(b) By a subscription of four pence as a kind of insurance fund, to make good the losses of its members

- (c) To pursue and procure the conviction of other men who might have defrauded the members of the guild

See Guilds

Fyrd.—Military service "Every owner of land was obliged to the fyrd"—(Stubbs) So much land had to provide so many warriors—possibly one warrior for each hide, or each five hides For neglecting the fyrd, a fine called *Fyrd wite*, was exacted It will be noticed that the fyrd bears great resemblance to the main condition of feudal tenure (*Wite* in Scotland still means *blame*)

Fyrd-wite *See Fyrd*

General Warrants were issued for the arrest of persons connected with a certain offence, but without mentioning the name of any one Wilkes was arrested in 1763 under a general warrant against the publishers of the *North Briton* He raised an action against the Under Secretary of State, receiving £1000 damages, and, in 1765, general warrants were declared illegal "General warrants are no warrants at all because they name no one"

Gerefa.—Possibly connected with German *Graf*, Count, and derived from *grau* grey = senior (We find it in Scotland in a shorter form as *griete*, which, in England and in Chaucer's time, was *reeve*, both words meaning farm bailiff)

"In the free townships he and the four best men were the legal representatives of the community in the court of the hundred and the shire"—(Stubbs) The hundred court was a court that tried criminals, acted as arbitrator in disputes, and witnessed transfers of land

Guilds.—The development of Guilds may be traced back from very early times They were, simply stated, friendly societies—confraternities united together for the performance of mutual good offices, the members contributed money or goods to their support and celebrated their meetings by

festivals The Exeter Guild, e.g., was what we should now call a burial society, it buried its dead members and provided money for the singing of masses for the comfort of their souls It also insured members against the risk of fire (Some of the Guilds, notably those of Chester, Coventry, and Wakefield, were famous for the presentation of Mystery Plays)

Habeas Corpus is a Latin phrase, meaning "You must produce the person" It is the name of a writ issued by a judge to the jailor who has charge of any prisoner, ordering him to produce him for trial It is thus a protection against unjust or prolonged imprisonment before trial By the Habeas Corpus Act, passed in 1679, no judge can refuse this writ when it is demanded It rests on the 29th section of Magna Charta "No freeman to be imprisoned, etc" *See p 124*

Hauberk was a coat of plate or chain mail without sleeves

Hide—About thirty acres of land The whole land belonging to a community was portioned off into hides, and each freeman, according to his rank, possessed so many hides

Hlaford.—A free but landless man had to place himself in a condition of dependence on some person called a *hlaford*, who should be responsible for his appearance in Court, if required This was because the landless man had no "tangible stake in the community through which the law can enforce its obligations"—(Stubbs) Modern form, *lord*

Homage "is the form that binds the vassal to the lord (that is in most cases the king), whose man he becomes, and of whom he holds the land, for which he performs the ceremony on his knees and with his hands in his lord's hands All land was held from the king, and so all landholders had to do him homage" (French, *homme*)

Homage of the Bishops—The Bishops in virtue of their baronial tenure owed homage to

the king, but only as to matters temporal. Thomas à Becket, before his murder, said that he had the spirituals from God and the Pope, the temporals from his lord the king. Thus the homage of the bishops was limited in respect of spiritual things. *See Homage*

Hundred—"The hundred was a union of townships for the purpose of judicial administration, peace and defence"—(Stubbs). The head or convener of this body was called the hundred-man or hundreds-ealdor, he was the elected representative of the freemen. The king's representative—the Hundred's Gerefá—sat with the hundred man, he was afterwards called the bailiff of the hundred. The division into hundreds was utilised in taxation as forming a rateable division of the country.

Hundred-Gemoot—Court of the hundred. It was presided over by the hundred-man or hundreds-ealdor, and composed of the whole body of freeholders in the hundred. Usually, however, its powers were delegated to a representative committee of twelve. The Court had criminal and civil jurisdiction, and all litigants were bound to apply to it before appealing to a higher Court. On the institution of Frank pledge, one of its main duties was seeing that each man in the hundred was enrolled in a tithing. *See Court Leet and Tithing, also Gerefá*

Hus Carls—Bodyguard of the Saxon kings

Impeachment is a form of trial used in cases of high treason and other public offences. The tribunal is the House of Lords, and the House of Commons is the accuser, and carries on the prosecution. After the evidence on both sides has been heard, a majority of the House of Lords finds the accused "Guilty" or "Not Guilty." Strafford, Laud, Warren Hastings, and others, were proceeded against by impeachment. *See Attainder, Bills of*

Strafford's Impeachment was afterwards converted by Fynn into an Attainder

Impressment is the practice of carrying off men against their will to serve as sailors in the navy. The practice, which existed from the fourteenth century, was in use until the time of William IV. Sailors returning from a voyage, and even peaceable citizens on their daily avocations, might be, and were, seized on the streets by a press gang, knocked down, wounded sometimes, bound, and carried on board a man-of-war, to serve for a term of years.

Jarl was a Danish title. The Jarl had very nearly the same powers and duties as the Earl and Ealdorman.

Justiciar—The Justiciar was the Regent or Lieutenant of the king, for the administration of judicial and financial duties in his absence. It was often found to be convenient to have an officer to dispense justice in place of such a king as William the Conqueror, who was often out of England, and did not understand the language of his subjects. Generally he was the confidential adviser of the king.

Knight Service was the tenure by which the king granted estates to his followers. Tenure by Knight Service was subject to the following conditions:

- (a) Military Service
- (b) Payment of Aids. *See Aids*
- (c) Payment of Reliefs. *See Reliefs*
- (d) King's right of Escheat. *See Escheat*

Laenland.—Bookland or Folkland leased out by its holders to free cultivators. *See Bookland and Folkland*

Lathe was the name given to subdivisions of the hundred in Kent. These subdivisions were made for the sake of judicial organisation.

Legates (Papal) were ambassadors sent by or empowered to represent the Pope in any country. From the time of Langton, the Archbishops of Canterbury were recognised by the Popes as ordinary Legates. Wolsey was not only Archbishop of York, but also

Papal Legate Cardinal Pole was the last Legate sent by the Pope to England

Levellers were a faction that arose in the time of the Commonwealth John Lilburne was their chief leader They were the Socialists of the time, demanding the abolition of titles and rank, and an equal division of possessions They rebelled against Cromwell, who easily suppressed them

Livery—The distinguishing dress worn by the retainers of great nobles Thus the livery of the Earl of Leicester, Queen Elizabeth's favourite, was a cloak bearing the device of a bear with a ragged staff The wearing of livery was forbidden by the Statute of Provisors (1390), because it encouraged powerful nobles to maintain a large liveried retinue, ready for any opportunity of disturbance Strolling players in and after Shakespeare's time had to assume the livery of some nobleman, in order to evade the law against vagabondage (French *liverer*, to give or deliver)

Lollards—The Lollards were a sect called into existence by the preaching of John Wycliffe, the chief aim of whose teaching was to unmask the shams that passed as religion To his tenets his followers added many wild revolutionary theories, and it was against these in particular that the Statute *De Heretico comburendo* (statute for the burning of heretics and revolutionists) was enacted In 1412 the Lollards raised a rebellion against Henry V under Sir John Oldcastle, and their enemies declared that they aimed to destroy the King and all the Estates of the realm, subvert the Christian faith, and appoint Sir John Oldcastle president of a Commonwealth

Maintenance—If a poor man wanted to go to law, and was afraid to fight his own case, he sometimes secured the advocacy of a powerful baron, on the understanding that the larger portion of the profits of the victory, if won, should be handed over to the maintainer of

the cause This practice was a constant one, and as constantly forbidden by law, especially by the Statute of Provisors (1390)

Maletote was a toll of forty shillings on every sack of wool In 1297, Edward I agreed not to exact it without consent of Parliament

Manor was the whole extent of land under a Norman baron, over the inhabitants of which he had jurisdiction, both in criminal and civil suits From the lord of the manor the tenants held their land, and were thus bound to do him service "Every manor had a court baron in which by-laws were made, and other local business transacted"—(Stubbs)

Mark—A coin, worth 13s 4d, so called from the mark impressed on it

Mark—"The general name of the mark is given to the territory, which is held by the community"—(Stubbs) Of this the arable land was annually divided between the free cultivators, and the pastoral land was held in common Each freeman had a right to the use only of the land, the absolute possession was merged in the community as a whole The Mark is one of the oldest civil institutions common to the Aryan race It is best preserved at the present day among the Slavonic peasants of Russia

Marshal—This office corresponded to the horseshegn of the Anglo Saxons (*see* Thegn) The marshal, whose office was hereditary, was quarter master general of the army He saw that proper military service was rendered by those from whom it was due, organised and arranged forces that were going to take the field, and during the war held courts for the trial of offenders against military laws

Merchant Guilds were associations containing all the traders and shopkeepers of the different towns, and without their licence no person was allowed to trade in any town, where was a merchant guild The freedom of a city then means

licence from the guild to trade therein. As the merchant guild embraced all the principal traders in the town, it became identical in fact with the governing body or town corporation.

Monopolies—The practice of granting monopolies was used by several sovereigns as a means of making money. The man who bought the monopoly of a certain trade had the sole right to carry it on, and any one else entering on that trade could be punished. They were put down by Elizabeth in 1601, revived under James I, and finally declared illegal in 1624.

Mortmain—Lands acquired by a religious institution or other corporate body as a perpetual possession, are said to be held in *mortmain*. The term, which means "dead hand," was used because the property became inalienable—could never be transferred again, and so was said to be in a dead hand's clutch. Such land was free from the duty of military service, and was therefore practically useless to the State. The famous "Statute of Mortmain" was issued by Edward I in 1279.

Mund—Special security granted to a man by king, earl, or ceorl, the violation of which was punished by a fine, *mundbyrd*. In the time of Ethelbert wrong done to a member of the royal household was punished by a *mundbyrd* of fifty shillings. A man who granted this *mund* or security to another requiring protection was called *mundborh*.

Mundbyrd and Mundborh.
See *Mund*.

National Debt—A state may borrow by issuing stock which is purchased by those who wish to invest their money, and on which interest is paid at a fixed rate. The British National Debt, which began under William III. in 1692, has increased within the last century to enormous proportions. It increased by £12,000,000 in William III's reign. At the present time it is over £700,000,000. The largest increase (£323,000,000) was

made during the French war of 1802-1815.

Non-Jurors were (Jacobite) prelates and other clergymen who gave up their sees and livings at the Revolution rather than take the oath of allegiance to William and Mary. They were about four hundred in number, and included Sanerost, Archbishop of Canterbury, and four others of the Seven Bishops. They were advocates of the doctrine of "Passive Obedience," or—as it was called in later days—"Non resistance."

Oath Compurgatory—"An accused might clear himself by his own oath, strengthened by the oath of certain compurgators"—(Langmead). The word *Compurgator* means "a man who helps to clear another," and compurgators were "witnesses to character," and testified to the sincerity and honesty of the accused.

Odal.—Of the same signification as *Aloð, g v*. The Odallers, or Udallers, are the freeholders of Orkney. Introduced by the Norsemen into Ireland, the word has been Hibernicised into O'Dell.

Orangemen are an organisation of Protestants in the north of Ireland, first created in 1796. Their object is to maintain opposition to the Roman Catholics and native Irish.

Ordeal.—Ordeal was employed when—

(a) The accused failed to justify himself by oaths compurgatory,

(b) Was taken red handed,

(c) Was a notorious perjurer.

The ordeal was regarded as a judgment of God and as therefore a proof from God of the guilt or innocence of the accused. There were three kinds of ordeals, hot iron, hot or cold water, and the *corsnaed* or *accursed morsel*.

If the accused passed safely through all or any of these he was held to be innocent.

Pale—The Pale was the part of Ireland subject to English law, which lay around Dublin, and was surrounded by a belt of marshes,

beyond which lay the independent Celtic districts. It disappeared after the Tudors subjugated the whole island. The dwellers in the Pale were ground between the upper and the nether millstone, and were "the most wretched of all the wretched inhabitants of Ireland."

Patent was at first a royal document conferring a title of nobility. The term is applied to the process by which the property of an inventor in his invention is guaranteed, and his right of ownership protected. (*Patent* means *open*. The Rolls granting titles were called "Patent Rolls," because they were delivered open, with the Great Seal affixed, and were addressed to all the king's subjects.)

Peter's Pence or **Rome seat** "was a tax of a penny on each hearth, which was collected and sent to Rome from the beginning of the tenth century"—(Stubbs.)

Plantations was the name given at first to the English Colonies in North America and the West Indies. Criminals and convicts were banished to the Plantations as slaves.

Poll-tax—A tax imposed on each poll (=head), 1 c on each person.

Port-reeve (Port gerefa) was the name given to the presiding magistrate of mercantile communities, such as London and Bath.

Praemunire—The first Statute of Praemunire (1353) was a law which enacted outlawry and forfeiture of estates of those who sued in foreign courts, and especially the Papal Court, for matters which fell properly under the jurisdiction of the King's Courts.

In 1393 was passed the great Statute of Praemunire, which forbade the obtaining of Bulls and other Papal instruments under pain of forfeiture of goods.

Press-gang—A company of sailors capturing men for the navy. See Impressment.

Pretender (=Claimant, *Fr. prétendre*, to claim) one who claims that the crown is his by right (*de*

jure). The Old Pretender (James VIII) and the Young Pretender (Prince Charles Edward) were the son and grandson of James II. They were excluded from the throne by the Act of Settlement (1701).

Protector—This title was first conferred on the Governor, or Regent, who exercised the king's power during a minority. It was afterwards borne by Oliver Cromwell and his son Richard. The term imported "a personal duty of attendance to the actual defence of the land."

Provisors—The famous Statute of Provisors was passed 1351. It emphatically forbade the Pope to nominate to English benefices. In 1390 another very important Statute of Provisors was passed. Its main points were:

- (a) That the Statute of 1351 should be reconfirmed.
- (b) That maintenance should be abolished. See Maintenance.
- (c) That the custom of livery should be discontinued. See Livery.

Proxy was the authorisation given by a member of the House of Peers to another person to vote for him. The authorisation had to be made by letter, and royal licence had to be granted for the appointment of a proxy.

Puritans were a religious party who arose under Elizabeth and the Stuarts. They objected to the Episcopal form of church government, more especially to the ritual, and desired greater *purity* and simplicity in worship. Some, for engaging in private worship in London, were sent to prison in 1567—"the first instance of actual punishment inflicted on Protestant Dissenters."

Purveyance—From *pouvoir*, to provide. "This was a privilege exercised by the Crown of buying up provisions and other necessities, by the intervention of the king's purveyors, for the use of his royal household, at an appraised valuation, in preference to all others,

and even without the consent of the owner, and also of forcibly impressing the carriages and horses of the subject to do the king's business on the public road—upon paying a settled price"—(Blackstone, *Comment* 1 287)

The Magna Charta contained a clause directed against this abuse

Queen Anne's Bounty—The revenue from First Fruits, which Henry VIII annexed to the crown, was granted by Queen Anne to raise the stipends of the poorer clergy. Hence it is called her Bounty. It was instituted in 1704.

Rape—The name given to a subdivision of the hundred in Sussex. These subdivisions were purely geographical, and not for judicial or fiscal purposes.

Regent—When a king is too young to exercise his power, or is incapable from any other cause, his place is taken by a Regent. The Regent's power lapses when the king comes of age. The right of selecting, and of determining the powers of, a regent resides in Parliament.

Regicide the murderer of a king. Those who sat on the trial, or were instrumental in the death of Charles I, were called the Regicides. At the Restoration ten of them were executed and the rest imprisoned.

Relief—On the death of a tenant his estate was allowed to descend to the heir, only on condition of a sum of money, called a relief, being paid to the king. William Rufus was so exacting in the matter of reliefs that he practically compelled the heir to redeem or purchase his inheritance. But by the Magna Charta it was settled that the relief for a barony should be £100 and for a knight's fee 100s.

Riding—Originally thriding or thridding, a third part. So Yorkshire is divided into three ridings—North, East, and West. South Yorkshire formed the old district of Hallamshire, round Sheffield. Lincolnshire was similarly divided.

Roundheads were the supporters of the Parliament in the great Civil War. They cropped their hair short, unlike the Cavaliers, who wore it in long locks, flowing down to their shoulders.

Sac and Soc—Side by side with the hundreds there often existed *franchises* or *liberties*, estates of free jurisdiction, over which the jurisdiction was vested in private hands and not in the hundreds. These exempt estates were termed *sithesock*, and their holders enjoyed all rights hitherto in the power of the king—the rights of nominating officers and exercising judicial functions. These particular rights were known as *sac and soc*, and, as is above mentioned, the rights of *sac and soc* conveyed the privilege of private jurisdiction over the estate outside of the hundred court.

Sanctuary—To seek "sanctuary" meant to take refuge "at the horns of the altar." Sanctuary was sought by a man fleeing for his life or to escape imprisonment. For a pursuer to take a fugitive out of sanctuary was an offence which the clergy could punish.

Scot and lot—The right of election for the boroughs was granted to all householders paying *Scot and lot*, "that is, bearing their rateable proportion in the payments levied from the town for local or national purposes"—(Stubbs.) This is in effect the electoral system that obtains at the present time.

Scutage—Money paid in commutation of personal military service. It was instituted by Henry II in 1159, and by furnishing him with the means of hiring mercenaries, made him in a great measure independent of the barons.

Ship-money—Under the Plantagenet kings, the port-towns and the coast counties were compelled to provide ships for the navy. When Charles I was in need of supplies he revived this custom in 1634, and demanded sums of money from the coast towns. The

tax was afterwards extended to the inland counties as well. Hampden resisted it in 1636. In 1641 Parliament declared it illegal.

Shire-moot—The meeting of the Shire—the general assembly of the folk of the shire. After the Conquest it was called the *County Court* (*q v*). It was composed of the sheriff, the ealdorman, the bishop, all lords of lands within the shire, and representatives from each township. This court took cognisance of every kind of suit, except in matters that concerned the king, but resort could not be made to it, until application had been first made to the hundred gemoot. See *County Court and Gerefa*.

Sinking Fund is a sum of money set apart for the purpose of paying off part of the National Debt. At present this debt is being reduced by the creation of terminable annuities.

Socage Tenure was a "tenure by any certain and determinate service, as to pay a fixed money rent, or to plough the lord's land for a fixed number of days in the year"—(Langmead). It was *not* held on condition of military service.

Speaker—The speaker was the foreman or embodied voice of the House of Commons, the mouth-piece by which the House could make its wishes, demands, or advice known to the king or queen. This was the original use of a speaker, his chief function at the present time is to preserve order and decorum in the debates of the House.

Stannary Courts are very ancient courts for the administration of justice among the tin workers of Cornwall and Devon. There was no appeal from these Courts to Westminster, and the Stuarts made large use of them as the engines of an arbitrary prerogative. (Lat *stannum*, tin.)

Star-Chamber was a court, so named, according to some, because it met in a room where the roof was painted with stars. It was founded by Henry VII. The members of

the Star Chamber were the Chancellor, Treasurer, and other members of the Great Council. It had power to punish any offence it thought fit, even juries could be punished for their verdicts. Under the Stuarts the Star Chamber used its authority against the opponents of the government in an arbitrary and tyrannical way. It was abolished in 1641.

Statute—When any proposed measure has been passed by Parliament and assented to by the Sovereign, it becomes binding as a law or Statute. Up to the time of Edward I. all our statutes are in Latin, from then to Henry VI, French is mostly used, from Henry VII they are all written in English. (Lat *statuo*, I fix.) See Bills.

Supremacy—When Henry VIII broke with the Pope, an "Act of Supremacy" was passed by which the king was declared "the only Supreme Head on earth of the Church of England." This supremacy is still one of the prerogatives of the English crown.

Suspending Power was the right claimed by the king of suspending the operation of or abrogating any law at his pleasure. "It arose from the necessity in the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries of combining the favour of the Pope with the maintenance of the Acts of Provisors and Praemunire." See Dispensing Power.

Tallage—A land-tax levied on the towns and demesne lands. The payer declared the value of his land and the officers of the Exchequer assessed the amount of tax. In 1297 it was declared illegal for the king to exact it without consent of Parliament.

Tallies—The sheriff had to send in to the Exchequer the amount of taxes he had collected. To mark the number of pounds, shillings, and pence received, the Exchequer prepared a tally, a long stick with notches cut on it, each notch standing for so much. The stick was then split in half, the Exchequer keeping one half and the sheriff the other. Thus the Exchequer

knew how much it had received, and the sheriff how much he had paid

Thegn—Original meaning, servant. He was a freeman and a landholder, and as such bound to military service. Thegns were the free retainers and body servants of the king or nobles. For instance, we read of the King's horse thegn, an office which survives in our Master of the Horse. So the King's dish bearer is the dish thegn.

Tithe—A tenth part of a man's goods and produce, which was bestowed on the Church, to be divided among the clergy and the poor.

Tithing—See Court Leet and Hundred Gemoot.

Tonnage and Poundage—A tax of two shillings on each tun of wine, and sixpence on each pound of merchandise. It was originally levied for a limited time for the support of the navy, but was converted under Henry V. into a permanent source of revenue. In 1630 it was declared illegal to raise tonnage and poundage without consent of Parliament. It was abolished in 1787.

Tory is an Irish or Irish word, meaning to pursue for the sake of plunder. It was first used as the name of those Irish who preferred to live as outlaws who roamed on their own lands to going to Connaught among the bogs. In 1679 it was applied to those who opposed the exclusion of the Duke of York from the throne on account of his Roman Catholic faith. From them it descended to all supporters of Church and King.

Treason is the crime of violence or treachery directed against the Sovereign or the State. Even to plan such a crime is treason. The penalty for treason is death, which used to be inflicted with horrible barbarity. Burning for treason was abolished in 1790, drawing, quartering, and beheading in 1870.

Tun—The original meaning of *tun* was the quickset hedge enclosing a single farm or a village. It soon came to mean the village itself, and as such is "the unit of con-

stitutional machinery." Its herd man was called *tungerefa*. The *Tun* formed the characteristic unit of Teutonic civil life, in contrast to the *Polis* (the rocky Acropolis or *Bal*) of the Classical and Celtic races. The inhabitant of the one was a slow simple farmer, of the other a quick-witted citizen.

In Scotland the farm-buildings are still called "the Toun" (The word is cognate with the German *Zaun*, a hedge, with the *Tines* of a stag's antlers, and the last syllable in *eglantine*, the sweet briar.)

Vassal—A vassal was a man who had done homage (*see* Homage) to a superior—either king or noble—in return for land granted to him. The mutual obligations existing between the lord and vassal were that the lord should defend and that the vassal should be faithful.

Vicar-General was a title conferred on Thomas Cromwell by Henry VIII, who was then acting as Supreme Head of the Church. The Vicar General was to administer justice in ecclesiastical affairs. It was in his capacity of Vicar General that Cromwell issued his Commission to inquire into the condition of religious houses.

Viceroy was the representative of the king. The ealdorman, *eq*, was the Viceroy of the king in the shire over which he presided.

Villeinage and Villeins—Tenure in villeinage was the system by which the villein held land which he was allowed to cultivate in lieu of money wages. The villein possessed no title deeds for this land, and in return for it he had to perform certain base services.

Villeins were divided into two classes—the villeins pure and villeins privileged. The first class were bound to do any work that was set them, and "knew not in the evening what they were going to do in the morning,"—being "occupiers of the land at the lord's will"—(Langbead.)

The tenure of the privileged villein was certain. Generally speaking, the villein in relation to his

lord or master was in the position of a serf, but free in relation to all others. He could be formally made free by the manumission of his lord, or he could free himself by running away and staying away for a year and a day. He had some political rights, in that he could send representatives to the hundred-moot or shire moot, but, otherwise he could only assert his rights indirectly through his master.

Against this the villen and his children could be sold with the land on which he lived.

Wapentake (= Wapontake) — The Anglian synonym for the hundred (*q v*)

Wards, Court of — This court was established by Henry VIII to attend to the affairs of the king's wards, viz., the heirs under age over whom he had the rights of a guardian. The Court saw that the king made a profit out of their estates.

Wergild — It was held among the English that every injury to person or property could be compensated by a money payment, called *wergild*. Every man's life had its value, and according to that valuation also the worth of his oath in courts of justice was estimated. The *wergild* of a serf was 200 shillings, of an ealdorman 2400 shillings, and of a king three times as much as an ealdorman. (The word *wergild* is cognate with the Latin *vir*, a man, and *virtus*, manliness.)

Whig was a name that was first applied in derision to the Scottish Covenanters. In 1679 it was given to the supporters of the Exclusion Bill. It became the name of the popular party that opposed the Stuarts and brought about the Revolution of 1688. In modern times the Whigs have been transformed into the Liberal Party, just as the Tories have become the Conservative Party.

Witenagemot — The gemot or meeting of the Witan or wise men. This was probably *not* a representative assembly, but composed of the king, ealdormen, the king's thegns, the bishops and abbots, and, roughly speaking, of all the wise men of the kingdom. It numbered probably about 100. Although the Witenagemot was not strictly speaking a representative meeting, yet it was unquestionably regarded as representing the national power and will. Its main powers were:

- (a) The right to depose the king for misgovernment. So the National Parliament three times exercised this power in deposing Edward II, Richard II, and James II.
- (b) It could elect the king.
- (c) It had a right to immediate participation in every act of government, judicial, legislative, and fiscal. In its judicial capacity it was the Supreme Court of Appeal.

Of course the extent to which it exercised these powers greatly depended on the character of the king, and all its powers were not always exercised. But in the matter of legislation and extraordinary taxation "the right of the Witan to give advice and counsel was at all times exercised" — (Langmead.)

Writ — When a Parliamentary constituency is without a member, owing to a dissolution or any other cause, a "writ" is issued to the sheriff of the county. It enjoins him to arrange an election at which a new member shall be chosen. The first instance of such a writ occurs in 1213.

Yeomanry is hardly a technical term, but was the general name given both to the small free holding farmers and also to the tenant farmers.

HISTORICAL TALES¹

(IN CHRONOLOGICAL ORDER)

TITLE.	AUTHOR.
1 Daybreak in Britain,	A. L. O. E.
2 Edal the Druid,	W. H. G. KINGSTON
3 Wulfgar the Earl,	{ Author of "Ruth and her Friends"
4 Tales of the Saxons,	EMMA TAYLOR.
5 Sea Kings of England,	I. ATHERTON.
6 Eldric the Saxon,	A. S. BRIDE.
7 Harold,	LORD LATTON.
8 Hereward the Wake,	CHAS. KINGSLEY.
9 William the Conqueror,	C. I. NALLER.
10 The Camp of Refuge,	C. MACKAY.
11 Ivanhoe,	SIR WALTER SCOTT.
12 The Talisman,	SIR WALTER SCOTT.
13 Richard Coeur-de-Lion,	JAMES WHITE.
14 Runnymede and Lincoln Fair,	J. C. FODAR.
15 The Siege of Kenilworth,	L. S. STANHOPE.
16 Stones of the City of London,	Mrs N. CLOSLAND.
17 Berkeley Castle,	G. F. BRIDGLEY.
18 Cressy and Poitiers,	I. C. FODAR.
19 John of Gaunt,	JAMES WHITE.
20 Merrie England,	AINSWORTH.
21 Forest Days (Robin Hood),	G. P. R. JAMES.
22 Robin Hood,	P. ECAN, JUN.
23 Agincourt,	G. P. R. JAMES.
24 Joan the Maid,	Mrs CHARLES.
25 The Caged Lion (James I. of Scotland),	C. M. YOUNG.
26 The Last of the Barons,	LORD LYTON.
27 Historical Tales of the Lancastrian Times,	H. P. DUNSTER.
28 The Earl of Hereford,	L. G. GURR BEN.
29 The Woodman (Richard III.),	G. P. R. JAMES.
30 The Last of the Plantagenets,	None.
31 Henry VII.,	Mrs SHILLING.
32 Fortunes of Perkin Warbeck,	Mrs SHILLING.
33 Bosworth Field,	None.
34 London City Tales,	E. M. STEWART.
35 Household of Sir Thomas More,	Mrs MANNING.
36 Windsor Castle (temp. Henry VIII.),	AINSWORTH.
37 Wolsey,	G. P. R. JAMES.
38 The Constable of the Tower (temp. Edward VI.),	AINSWORTH.
39 The Tower of London (Queen Jane),	AINSWORTH.
40 Three Hundred Years Ago (Mary),	W. H. G. KINGSTON.
41 Cardinal Pole,	AINSWORTH.
42 The Monastery (Mary Queen of Scots),	SIR WALTER SCOTT.
43 The Abbot (Mary Queen of Scots),	SIR WALTER SCOTT.
44 Kenilworth (Elizabeth),	SIR WALTER SCOTT.
45 The Queen's Maids (Mary Queen of Scots),	WYATT MELVILLE.
46 The Royal Merchant (Sir T. Gresham),	W. H. G. KINGSTON.

¹ This List is extracted by permission from Mr. H. Courthope Bowen's "Descriptive Catalogue of Historical Novels and Tales" (London: Stanford).

TITLE.	AUTHOR
47 Westward Ho ! (Spanish Armada),	C KINOSLEY
48 Arabella Stuart (James I),	G P R JAMES
49 The Fortunes of Nigel (James I),	SIR WALTER SCOTT
50 Guy Fawkes,	AINSWORTH
51 Brambletye House (Charles I),	HORACE SMITH
52 The White Gauntlet (Charles I),	MAYN REID
53 The Cavalier (The Civil War)	G P R JAMES
54 The Children of the New Forest (Civil War),	MARRIAT
55 John Inglesant (Civil War),	J H SHORTHOUSE
56 Holmby House (Civil War),	WHITE MELVILLE.
57 Boseobel (Prince Charles),	AINSWORTH
58 The Legend of Montrose (Scotch Covenanters),	SIR WALTER SCOTT
59 The Diary of Mary Powell (Mrs John Milton),	MISS MANNING
60 Oliver Cromwell (The Commonwealth),	HORACE SMITH
61 Woodstock (Battle of Worcester),	SIR WALTER SCOTT
62 Henry Masterton (Commonwealth),	G P R JAMES
63 Talbot Harland (Charles II),	AINSWORTH
64 The Captain of the Guard (Charles II),	GRANT
65 Old St Paul s (The Plague and Fire),	AINSWORTH
66 Peveril of the Peak (1678),	SIR WALTER SCOTT
67 Bothwell Bridge (Scotland, 1679),	SIR WALTER SCOTT
68 The Oak Staircase (Monmouth)	M & C LEE.
69 The Danvers Papers (Monmouth),	C M YONGE
70 Walter Colyton (1688),	HORACE SMITH
71 The Fate (1688),	G P R JAMES
72 The Last of the Cavaliers (1688),	C M YONGE.
73 Boyno Water (1690),	BANIM
74 The King s Highway (William and Mary),	G P R JAMES
75 St. James s (Anne),	AINSWORTH
76 Esmond (Anne),	THACKERAY
77 Stella and Vanessa (Dean Swift),	LADY DUFE GORDON
78 The South Sea Bubble,	AINSWORTH
79 Castle Rack Rent,	MISS EDGEWORTH
80 Devereux (Anne)	BULWER.
81 The Cornet of Horse (Marlborough),	G A. HENT
82 Lucy Arden (George I),	GRANT
83 Preston Fight (1715),	AINSWORTH
84 Henry Smeaton (George I),	G P R JAMES
85 Rob Roy (Jacobite Plots),	SIR WALTER SCOTT
86 The Lord Mayor of London (George II),	AINSWORTH
87 Heart of Midlothian (Porteous Plots, 1736),	SIR WALTER SCOTT
88 Treasure Trove (Fontenoy, 1745)	SAMUEL LOVER.
89 The White Cockade (Scotland, 1746),	GRANT
90 The Good Old Times (George II)	AINSWORTH
91 Waverley (The Forty Five),	SIR WALTER SCOTT
92 The Virginians (End of the American War),	THACKERAY
93 The Surgeon s Daughter (George III),	SIR WALTER SCOTT
94 Barnaby Rudge (The Gordon Riots)	DICKENS
95 Evelina (George III),	MISS BURNEY
96 Hurricane Harry (American War)	W H G KINGSTON
97 The Spy (American War),	FENIMORE COOPER.
98 Miss Angel (George III),	MISS THACKERAY
99 The Croppy (1798),	BANIM
100 Ben Bracc (Nelson),	CAPTAIN CHAMBER.
101 The Knight of Groyne (Ireland, 1801),	C LEVER
102 The Fire Ships (Nelson),	W H G KINGSTON
103 The Lords of Strozze (Ireland, 1803),	WINGFIELD
104 The King s Own Borderers (Peninsular War),	GRANT
105 The Subaltern (American War of 1812),	GLEIG
106 The Romance of War (Peninsula),	GRANT
107 The King s Own (Mutiny at the Nore),	MARRIAT
108 The Black Prophet (Irish Famine of 1847),	W CARLTON
109 Castle Richmond (Irish Famine of 1847),	A. TROLLOPE.
110 Alton Locke (Chartist Movement),	C KINOSLEY
111 Sybil (Chartist Movement),	DISRAELI
112 Ravenshoe (Crimean War),	H KINOSLEY
113 The Interpreter (Crimean War),	WHITE MELVILLE.
114 One of the Six Hundred (Balaklava),	GRANT

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NOTE —In many cases information will also be found in the Short Lives of Eminent Persons, pp 641-58, or in the List of Terms, pp 659-74

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